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CRITICAL REVIEW.

For N O V E M B E R, 1787.

Lectures on the Sacred Poetry of the Hebrews; translated from the Latin of the Right Rev. Robert Lowth, D.D. Lord Bishop of London, by G. Gregory, F.A.S. 2 Vols. 8vo. 12s. in Boards. Johnson.

OUR praises cannot add to the credit of Dr. Lowth's Lectures, nor render them better known; but in consequence of the appearance of a translation it becomes necessary that we should make a few remarks on their plan and conduct; particularly since they were published before the commencement of our Journal, and of course could only have been incidentally mentioned in any of our volumes.

It is not the object of these Lectures exclusively to examine Hebrew poetry, or to engage in the wilds of Oriental philology. They have a wider scope, and comprehend a larger circuit; 'they embrace all the great principles of general criticism as delivered by the ancients, improved by the keen judgment and polished taste of their author.' The greater part of the first volume consists of general remarks on the different kinds of poetry, and its ornamental as well as its fundamental parts. The illustrations are generally taken from the Hebrew poetry; and many parts of the volume are designed to explain the sources of its beauty. The second volume contains an account of the different species of Hebrew poetry extant, and includes a critical examination of the poetical books of the Old Testament. Whatever be the learning and the genius of the author, however splendid the sentiments, or elegant the style, the translator thinks the work better calculated for persons of taste and general reading than what may be called the learned world: in other words, it consists rather of general remarks than minute philological enquiries. Of the translator, we cannot speak uniformly well. His accuracy and knowledge are not inconsiderable; but his language is too near the Latin idiom to be generally pleasing. He has stepped with a scrupulous, almost a displeasing attention, in

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the vestiges of his author ; he has touched, with a timid hand, the original observations, lest he might deface, what he only designed to adorn. In general, he has preserved the notes of Michaelis, though they are sometimes abridged ; and the remarks of Dr. Kennicot and Dr. Hunt, which were published in the original work, he has preserved with due care. His own notes are often very valuable ; and the elegant and judicious remarks of his friend Mr. Henley, form a very acceptable addition to these Lectures. In the poetical part, he has often adopted Mr. Merrick's version of the Psalms, and has enriched his translation with Mr. Mason's beautiful paraphrase of the 14th chapter of Isaiah. In some instances, the poetical translations are his own ; but in these, as well as in his choice of other versions, from his fondness for simplicity, he occasionally sinks into, and sometimes prefers, flat and prosaic lines. There is no part of a poet's task which requires a taste so cultivated, and a judgment so exact, as simple elegance, and unornamented neatness. Many have failed in the attempt ; and we ought not to condemn Mr. Gregory, when he remarks, that he was a poet from necessity, not choice ; and, on that modest ground, founds his apology. We ought to select some of his own remarks.

‘ Convinced, on the whole, of the utility of this publication, and yet aware of my own inability to do it justice, I dismiss it with that mixed emotion of confidence and humility, which such a situation naturally inspires. Imperfect as it appears before the world, if it be the means of imparting to but a few some of that information, which all who read the original must regret was not more generally diffused, I am sure I shall have deserved well of the community : at the same time, the reader will do me great injustice, if he supposes that I have satisfied myself in the execution of my task. Whatever be its reception, it will disappoint no expectations formed by me of profit or of fame ; and if neither ensue from it, I shall have no just cause of complaint. It was impossible to read these Lectures with the attention which even this translation required, and not derive advantages from them far superior to the labour they have cost me ; and whatever may be their effect with others, I am confident they have left me something wiser, and I trust something better, than they found me.’

On a work so well known, which the learned in England and on the continent have for many years distinguished with a flattering attention, our observations need not be minute. It will be sufficient if we extract a specimen of the translation, and of the notes with which it is illustrated.

The parts of Dr. Lowth's Lectures, which have displayed more particularly the characteristic features of his mind, an
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exact discrimination, and an enlarged comprehension, are the remarks on the prophets and the Psalms. We shall select our author's opinion of Ezekiel, and shall distinguish, by Italics, those parts where the translator's minute attention to his original has stiffened his language, and rendered it unpleasing.

' Ezekiel is much inferior to Jeremiah in elegance; in sublimity he is not even excelled by Isaiah: but his sublimity is of a totally different kind. He is deep, vehement, tragical; the only sensation he affects to excite is the terrible: his sentiments are elevated, fervid, full of fire, indignant; his imagery is crowded, magnificent, terrific, sometimes *almost to disgust*; his language is pompous, solemn, austere, rough, and at times unpolished: he employs frequent repetitions, not for the sake of grace or elegance, but from the vehemence of passion and indignation. Whatever subject he treats of, that he sedulously pursues, from that he rarely departs, *but cleaves as it were to it; whence the connection is in general evident and well preserved.* In many respects he is perhaps excelled by the other prophets; but in that species of composition to which he seems by nature adapted, the forcible, the impetuous, the great, and solemn, not one of the sacred writers is superior to him. His diction is sufficiently perspicuous, all his obscurity consists in the nature of the subject. Visions (as for instance, among others, those of Hosea, Amos, and Jeremiah) are necessarily dark and confused. The greater part of Ezekiel, towards the middle of the book especially, is poetical, whether we regard the matter or the diction. His periods, however, are frequently so rude and incompact, that I am often at a loss how to pronounce concerning his performance in this respect.'

We have selected this passage, to point out the different opinion of Michaelis in the note subjoined. He differs from Dr. Lowth, and thinks the style of Ezekiel too luxuriant and artificial to deserve the title of fervid or sublime. He accumulates the images of the Hebrew poets with the profusion of a collector, who thinks that he has never done enough. As an instance, Michaelis selects the simple image of the birds of prey feeding on the dead bodies of the slain, which is alluded to in the expressive energy of Habakkuk, in these few words.

' Before him went the pestilence,
And his footsteps were traced by the birds.'

Ezekiel, in a similar situation, has amplified, with great exactness, the several circumstances of this savage banquet; and, in his fear of omitting any part of the event, has, with a minute attention, collected every indelicate, and every disgusting image. Indeed Michaelis might have observed, that the Muses of Ezekiel are seldom attired by the Graces, or rendered attracting by the elegance of their deportment.

On this subject, the translator's remark deserves much attention. Independent of the want of grace, he thinks that the prophet wants uniformity: the sublimity of one line is generally debased by the bathos of that which follows.

Of the notes of the translator's friend, Mr. Henley, we have spoken with respect. We shall give some account of one of his notes, on a subject which relates rather to general criticisms than to Hebrew poetry.

Of the fourth Eclogue of Virgil, the opinions have been various. It has been generally supposed that the poet had received information of the Jewish prophecies, and had drank large draughts from the sacred spring. So much is still allowed, and Mr. Henley engages in a particular explanation of what seems to have been Virgil's object in this poem. Dr. Lowth had remarked, with great acuteness, that it is improbable that Virgil should have any reference to a descendant of Augustus, when he addresses his poem to Pollio, a partizan of Antony, who was at that time a triumvir. The imagery of the prediction also was as inconsistent with a son of Augustus, as to a descendant of Pollio himself. These are the difficulties which the annotator endeavours to elucidate, and he has succeeded very well. We shall give the outline of the argument, for it would be too extensive an undertaking to follow Mr. Henley in his particular remarks on the bishop's note.

At the time when this Eclogue was written, A. U. C. 714, a reconciliation had been effected between Octavius and Antony, and the latter was gone to his eastern kingdom. At this time too Augustus had no enemy in the West but Pompey, who still commanded a fleet; whose wife's sister, however, the politic Augustus had married, and who was now pregnant. Much then might have been expected from the son of Scribonia; and Virgil, in his flatteries to Augustus, was not usually sparing of encomiums, and even expressions of adoration. The Jewish prophecies, to which he had access, furnished images and language; for the coincidence between this Eclogue and the second, eleventh, and fifty-sixth chapters of Isaiah, are too striking to escape attention. The images are the same, and they are combined in the same manner, a manner very different from the usual analogies. Virgil indeed was always an imitator where he could find a copy; and that he did not consider this imitation as a fault, may be collected from his boasting of it in the third Georgic.

‘*Primus Idumæas referam tibi Mantua Palmas.*’

Scribonia, however, was unfortunately delivered of a daughter; but Virgil was resolved that so many predictions should not be thrown away; and, with a courtly versatility, applied them

them to Augustus himself, and his posterity of any kind. We think that the words in the sixth Æneid afford a striking proof of Mr. Henley's position, which we are surprised that so acute a critic should not have remarked. If the predictions of the fourth Eclogue had been supposed to apply to a son, of whom Scribonia was then pregnant, the birth of a daughter would destroy the reputation of a prophet, if it were not amended. The poet, with great art, after the daughter was born, connects it with Augustus' posterity, and to *all* his descendants applies the numerous prophecies

‘ Hic Cæsar & omnis Juli
Progenies, magnum cœli ventura sub axem.
Hic vir, hic est; tibi quem promitti sæpius audis.’

If this interpretation be admitted, and we would suggest it with some diffidence, the passage will, we think, have a different meaning, and additional spirit.

The poem was addressed to Pollio with great propriety, as he had introduced Virgil to Augustus; and, at this period, no misunderstanding had occurred. It is indeed evident that, at this period there could be no difference, for Cæsar and Antony were reconciled; and, in that reconciliation, had laid the foundation for the general peace, which was one of the most obvious circumstances by which the æra of the promised king* might be ascertained. Mr. Henley's observations on Virgil's adapting the antiquæ sacerdotum literæ† to the expected son of Cæsar, we shall select.

* Virgil, in the first Eclogue, which was written on regaining his estate, confines himself chiefly to his own concerns and those of his Mantuan neighbours, but in the present his voice is raised to a loftier strain. The *arbuscula humilesque myricæ* are the concerns of private life contrasted with *Sylvæ*, such as belong to the empire at large: thus, Rome is said in the first Eclogue “to rear her head as high above other cities, as the tall cypress above the lowly shrubs.”—*Si canimus sylvas*, &c. “if woods be my theme, let the woods be worthy of a consul.” This imagery is by no means casual; for we learn from Suetonius (Jul. Cæs. c. xix.) that the woods had been lately made a consular care.—*Ultima Cumæi venit jam carminis ætas*: “The last age of the Cumæan prophecy is now come.” It is highly deserving of notice, that Cicero, in his treatise on Divination, has not only referred to the Sibylline verses, as

* Virgil speaks of a king; and the translator observes, that the very prophecies from which he has apparently copied his imagery, do not seem to have any relation to the *first* coming of the Messiah, but wholly to relate to that triumphant *second* coming, which is yet unaccomplished.

† This connection is shortly alluded to in our review of Vathec, vol. lxii. p. 41.

containing a divine prediction of some future king, but also mentioned an expectation that the interpreter of them would apply that prediction, in the senate, to Cæsar. This prophecy had possibly its origin in the Jewish Scriptures, and it is not unlikely that the partiality of Julius towards the Jews might have concurred, with other circumstances, to point the application. But however this were, an expectation had been long prevalent in the East, of an extraordinary personage, who was to establish universal empire; and the prediction whence this expectation arose, was probably brought to Rome, by the persons whom the senate had deputed to search in different countries for prophetic verses, to supply the loss of those which had perished in the Capitol. Such, however, is the affinity between the prediction spoken of by Cicero, and that which Tacitus (Hist. v. 13.) has referred to the Jewish Scriptures, as to leave no room for surprise if we see Virgil, from the notion of both having a common aim, adopt the one to adorn the other; for, as the former was thought applicable to Julius, and the latter to Vespasian or his son, why might not Virgil consolidate both, and apply them to the son of Octavius? And if Tacitus were acquainted with the Jewish Scriptures, why might not Virgil be also? His writings shew that his researches were universal, and upon every principle of just construction, if the Muses and the Aonian mount be emblematical of the Grecian poesy, his Indumæan palms must equally signify the poetic Scriptures of the Jews. [See Georg. iii. 12.]—*Ultima ætas*, &c. “the last age of the Cumæan prediction is now come.” Whatever were the particulars of this prediction, the time set for its completion coincides with that in the Scriptures.’

Mr. Henley then examines the particular language of the Eclogue, and shows, at some length, how the poet’s art had adapted it to the reign of Augustus. The extent of the note alone prevents us from following his footsteps.

We cannot conclude without expressing the pleasure we feel at seeing these Lectures in an English dress, and at the information we have received from the valuable and judicious notes by which they are illustrated.

A Demonstration that true Philosophy has no Tendency to undermine Divine Revelation; and that a well-grounded Philosopher may be a true Christian. By Cæsar Morgan, M. A. 8vo. 2s. Cadell.

THE philosopher has been branded with the reproach of deism, and the physician with that of atheism, perhaps with equal reason. We have already had occasion to observe that, in each instance, the accusation was groundless, and to offer some reasons to show that it must necessarily be so. The
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subject has been taken up at a much greater length in a late publication, where we were unable to pursue it. The author was fully of opinion, that philosophy had no tendency to make men believers; on the contrary, that it had an opposite effect. To an opinion of this kind, Mr. Morgan's essay is a proper reply: to the question, if taken in general, we apprehend a different plan would have been more convincing. The fact should be first ascertained, and we should enquire whether the best philosophers have been the greatest infidels. If Newton, Bacon, Boyle, Stahl, and Arbuthnot, should immediately occur to the enquirer, and these names be only opposed by Spinoza, Mirabeau, and Toulmin, the question would soon be solved; but, until this question is decided, the reasoning of authors, particularly that of Mr. Caesar Morgan, might be supposed to be more injurious than serviceable. If, as they contend, the study of philosophy improves the faculties of the mind, and renders it more quick-sighted in the discovery of truth, then the infidelity of philosophers must be an argument *against* the truth of religion. In fact, the philosopher, in his examination of the properties of bodies, and their connection with, as well as their influence on each other, sees a connected chain, which, as it seems to have no beginning, may have no end: the whole is a system, depending on its different parts, without the necessity of an agent, and without requiring any repair. The forms are only changed; and, when a body is dissolved, its atoms are scattered to unite again, and contribute their share to the general system in a new shape. If this be pursued, and no little philosophy is required in order to understand it, infidelity may be the consequence; but the enquirer, who ranks so high in his own class, is necessarily deficient if he goes no farther. He assumes, at once, the bodies as given, and the properties, either as spontaneous, or owing to chance. The first must immediately appear absurd; for, in reality, however the forms may change, we know that some agency is necessary to create the substance: the latter is inconsistent with what he sees; for nothing fortuitous is constant; and what is spontaneous, must either be in itself intelligent, or acted on by an intelligent being; and both are inconsistent with the system of the infidel. In short, while it is impossible that a genuine philosopher and an enlightened enquirer can be an infidel, if we consider the arguments *a priori*, it is not a fact that they have been so. In many parts of this essay, therefore, the author contends with a shadow; and, in some others, the arguments are not compacted with skill, or urged with much force. We are pleased with the elegance of the language, and the plausibility of the reasoning; but we own

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that if we had read only this pamphlet, we should not have been convinced. It is time, however, to give a short account of our author's plan, and a specimen of its execution.

Mr. Morgan's object is to show, that philosophy can have no tendency to undermine divine revelation; and with this view he obviates the reasons which may be assigned for a different opinion. These are, that the principles of revelation and philosophy are inconsistent with each other; that the act of investigation has a tendency to produce doubts and uncertainty, or that knowledge itself may introduce unbelief. After considering the subject in these different lights, he explains the causes which have given rise to the opinion, that the pursuit of philosophy is prejudicial to the interests of revelation.

In this enquiry he confines himself to the question proposed, and considers it chiefly as it regards revelation; but he often enlarges on those points which are applicable to a belief in God as well as a divine revelation. Indeed it is not easy to separate them; for, if we admit of the existence of a Deity, it will be reasonable to imagine that he should declare his will to his creatures; and the question then rests on the nature of the testimony for, and the probability in support of, any dispensation.

As a specimen, we shall select the following argument: it is an excellent one. We wish it had been pushed with the force it would have allowed, and exemplified from the different departments of science.

‘ But besides all this, the philosopher perceives insuperable difficulties in the most common objects, of which, he imagined, he had an adequate knowledge; and is reduced to the necessity of resolving almost every thing in the creation into the appointment of the creator. Hence he will be still less disposed to set up his limited understanding, as the unerring rule of what is right and fitting, and to measure infinite wisdom by so defective a standard.—Whoever rejects the discoveries of the Gospel, because they surpass his comprehension, manifests a very great ignorance of the nature and state of all the knowledge that we possess, whether it be philosophical or religious, natural or revealed. The true philosopher is very sensible of the difficulties attending the doctrine of the resurrection of the body. But he is far from thinking those difficulties a sufficient ground for rejecting the doctrine itself. He finds himself equally incapable of accounting for the first formation of our bodies, of their growth, of the manner in which they receive their nourishment, or even of discovering that secret power by which their several parts, and the minute but separate particles of each are held together. Having sufficient evidence of the reality of the things themselves, he readily embraces them as truths; notwithstanding

withstanding his incapacity to understand the manner in which they are accomplished.'

In the following passage the author directs the argument, which we have employed somewhat differently : we fear it will be too humiliating a prospect for the pride of science to look at with complacency.

' Another objection, frequently urged against philosophy, is, that, by confining the mind to the contemplation of second causes, it is apt to withdraw it from the consideration of God, the first cause of all things. If philosophy had really this effect, it would be subversive not only of revealed, but also of natural religion : and, in truth, it is not unfrequently charged with both those consequences, but in each case with equal injustice. The operations of nature are undoubtedly carried on with the utmost regularity and order. In the ordinary course of things, every event is accomplished by means of second causes. This may easily impose upon a superficial observer, who has so confined a view of things, that he looks no farther for the cause of any effect, than to the instrument that immediately produced it. But the true philosopher perceives that the course of nature could never have been established without the interposition of some agent ; and that the order and regularity of it prove, in the most satisfactory manner, the wisdom and goodness of that being who established it. He observes, that what is not improperly denominated a cause, when taken in one point of view, is in another merely an effect ; and that, without an acknowledgment of an original cause of all things, not one of the operations of nature can be satisfactorily explained. That, indeed, is the foundation of all true philosophy ; and if it should be removed, the whole superstructure would be totally subverted. The philosopher can proceed but a very little way in any direction, before he comes to this boundary of all his enquiries. While the sciolist bewilders himself in the intricate mazes of second causes, and talks, without meaning, of nature, fate, and chance, he discovers in every thing clear marks of the positive appointment, of the wise design, and benevolence of the Deity. By habitually referring every thing ultimately to the fountain of wisdom, and by continually meeting the creator, as it were, in every part of his works, a man acquires that frame of mind which is of all others most favourable for the reception of religious impressions. Every object around him reminds him of the omnipotence and omnipresence of God. Every thing that he sees, hears, and feels, tells him in the most unequivocal language, that God originally produced, still preserves, and will finally dispose of all things ; that his paths are unsearchable, and his ways past finding out.'

We may perhaps give a better reason for the imputed infidelity of the philosopher, or the atheism of the physician. Those who have been used to reason with a generous freedom
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and to expatiate in the fields of science, cannot brook the limits which the sectarist would impose, or decline any enquiry with the religious horror of the bigot. While they emerge, therefore, from the pale of a sect, they are supposed to be wandering in the confines of infidelity; and, because their religion may have no peculiar name, it is supposed not to exist. We have known many of these reputed infidels; but we have not seen many better instances of a true and well regulated religious system than among philosophers.

There is a neatness in our author's manner which generally pleases; and in this little work there are many just observations and judicious remarks. We cannot recommend it as containing many new arguments, or for employing, with peculiar success, those before in our hands. It will alter no one's opinion, or convert one hesitating philosopher.

Religion considered as the only Basis of Happiness, and of true Philosophy. By Madame the Marchioness of Sillery. 2 Vols. 8s. T. Payne and Son.

MADAME de Sillery has conferred a real obligation on the world by this attempt. Her judgment can penetrate the veil of false philosophy, and see, under the artificial doubts of the sceptic, the truths of religion. What she sees with so much clearness, she explains with equal brilliancy and force. Her chapters consist of short essays on natural and revealed religion: some points she touches with a presumptuous hand; she seems to feel the shock, and retreats with rapidity. The chapters on 'Original Sin,' and on 'Mysteries,' might have been omitted with little loss. If we are obliged to speak with less respect of these essays, we ought to notice, as particularly excellent, those chapters which relate to the deviations which a false philosophy, and the pride of human wit, have produced. Among the pretended philosophers, our author is a Thalestris, who strikes with an unsparing hand: each word is a wound, and each wound is fatal.

We shall not follow madame de Sillery very closely because a great part of her arguments are borrowed from authors well known. They are, however, animated by her spirit; and the intricacies of metaphysics, in her hands, lose their difficulty. Her work was intended for the duke de Chartres, in his early age, and the arguments are designedly adapted to the capacity of a youth of twelve years old. We must make allowance for the early maturity of the inhabitants of the South: these volumes may be properly understood, in this country, by young people of sixteen; and, to them, would prove a very valuable acquisition.

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In the following passage there is a slight abstract of the labours of the pretended philosophers of the present century. It is animated with the author's severest spirit, and tinged with all the bitterness of her justest satire.

'It seemed that these sublime geniuses (the philosophers of the last age) had reaped all the immortal laurels, which reason and virtue, united to talents, could obtain. Struck with these discouraging considerations, the great wits of the day engaged in desperate measures. Well, said they, let us strike out another road; let us confound all ideas, overturn every principle; let us flatter the passions, destroy religion, and we will call this new doctrine philosophy. We will write philosophical tragedies, and introduce therein a certain number of seditious maxims, and an infinity of verses against priests and religion. We will write philosophical tales, licentious ones, and full of impiety. We will also be moralists; for that purpose we will pilfer from Fenelon, Pascal, Massillon, and others; and we will add thereto a fund of philosophy, that is to say, of pyrrhonism, and of free and voluptuous descriptions, which may seduce and corrupt youth. We will write history, not like Bossuet, but like philosophers, insolently apostrophizing kings, treating contumeliously sovereign authority, as well as whole nations; calumniating the clergy, popes, and religion. It must be acknowledged that Corneille, Racine, Boileau, Fenelon, &c. were men of genius; but in all our works we will criticise those of these great men, sometimes openly, and at others by appearing to admire them. We will remark, that the prose of Telemachus is a little tiresome: we will add, that Pascal was a madman: we will also say, that Boileau was only a man of wit: we will make notes full of injustice and partiality against the great Corneille: we will repeat, that there is in the inimitable fables of la Fontaine but one only merit, that of their being natural: we will maintain that Bossuet, that eloquent and sublime defender of the faith, was but an atheist, &c. &c. and afterwards we will add, that all these writers were deficient in philosophy, and that none but philosophical authors ought to be admired.

'Our morality, much more commodious than that of Fenelon, Pascal, or Bossuet, will, without doubt, procure to us a great number of partisans. We will give the title of philosopher to all our admirers; and we will cover with ridicule those who shall reject our doctrine. If our falsehoods and errors be animadverted upon, or detected, we will answer by injuries, calumnies, and pleasantry, infallible means of forcing, in the end, reason to silence. Then, absolute masters of the field, we will repeat, for forty years without interruption, all that our adversaries shall have refuted, from the first step we made in our career.'

The anecdotes are often pleasing; we are informed that Buffon read the *Telemaque* with greater pleasure than any other
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author of that age: we see, with great satisfaction, that the trophies of Newton were established, and those of Diderot and the Encyclopedists deservedly shaken. We shall select but one other specimen, and it shall be that which relates to the character of Rousseau as a religious man. We are sorry that we can find room only for a part of it.

‘ It is not in a single passage only that Rousseau has rendered this homage to religion; I have quoted an infinity of the same kind. These eternal truths were at the bottom of his soul: we feel them in a strong and sensible manner whenever he expresses them. But why, on the other side, has he so formally denied and attacked them? why does he so often support the pro and con? He was led astray by excessive pride; he misconceived true glory; he would be unlike every other person: too proud and too great to comply with the flexibility and tricks of intrigue; too covetous of success to give himself freely to the good cause, and to reject the artifices which might acquire popularity; too sensible, blindly to adopt the philosophic system, he took the middle road; he appeared to float betwixt error and truth, a situation that naturally flatters our weakness. Strokes of admirable morality made every honest man his friend; whatever were his errors, who could despise or hate him, who had so often spoke of virtue in such persuasive, bewitching, and sublime terms? Licentious pictures, dangerous principles, but veiled with art, exposed with seducing address, ought generally to please, and cannot produce, even in the minds of the most severe, that disgust, that lively indignation, which the fables of Voltaire and Diderot, &c. excite. The clergy and the devout have all pardoned him, from the bottom of their souls, for what he wrote against religion, in favour of the repeated homages which he has rendered the Gospel. The women, as I have elsewhere remarked, have also pardoned him for having spoken of them with contempt, as he always mentioned them with the voice of passion. In a word, he has known how to reconcile the whole world, still preserving the liberty of saying every thing; and precisely because he had no fixed opinion or invariable principle; for he contradicts himself in such a manner, that, from the atheist to the saint, every one may find ideas and principles analogous to his belief and sentiments.—But it will be said, perhaps, he has not spared the philosophers; with what contempt has he not treated them in his works? True; but he has also written against revelation, against eternal punishment; and that was entering into the general system of philosophers: besides, he has flattered the sect in a still more pointed manner, in his *Nouvelle Heloise*, by describing an atheist as the most accomplished model of wisdom and virtue.’

This apparent inconsistency, and the real inconsistency of many other passages, our author explains from his eagerness
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for popularity. Though he despised it in words, he courted it in reality.

The translation is executed with great fidelity: it was perused by madame de Sillery, who is well acquainted with English. The translator tells us, that he aimed at fidelity rather than ornament; but he might have been faithful without disfiguring the language:—‘give to a depraved man a fatal and destructive energy,’ ‘advanced the term of his existence,’ with many similar literal versions, should have been avoided. Yet, on the whole, we are much pleased with these two volumes, and think them a valuable addition to the works designed for the instruction of youth.

Ignoramus, Comædia; scriptore Georgio Ruggle, A. M. Aulæ Clarenfis, apud Cantabrigienses, olim Socio: nunc denuo in Lucem edita cum Notis Historicis et Criticis: quibus insuper præponitur Vita Auctoris, et subjicitur Glossarium Vocabula forensia dilucide exponens: accurate Johanne Sidneio Hawkins, arm. 8vo. 6s. in Boards, T. Payne and Son.

FEW classical scholars are unacquainted with this witty comedy, designed to ridicule the language of the common law, and the dulness of some of its professors. It was represented twice at Cambridge, before that pedantical scholar of Buchanan, James I. who is reported to have disliked the lawyers, because he once prematurely formed an opinion, in the King's-Bench, on hearing the speech of the plaintiff's counsel, whose arguments were entirely overturned by the superior eloquence of his antagonist. The effect of this comedy may be well understood by the numerous retorts of the lawyers: they felt the force of the ridicule, and had so little judgment as to express the warmest resentment against the poet and his work. Yet the author allowed them the retort courteous, in the person of Ignoramus, who stigmatizes one of the characters with the dulness of an university man (universitizans). We need not add, that the language of the comedy in general is as correct and elegant, as that of the lawyer represented in it is erroneous and barbarous. Musæus, whom we may suppose was intended by the author as a friend of the Muses, is indeed a clerk belonging to Ignoramus. He appears once, as a scholar, only to be laughed at by his master. We shall select the passage, as a specimen of the wit of the play. Ignoramus is just come from the courts, and asks Musæus' opinion of the ability which he had been just displaying in the discovery of a forgery.

‘*Ign.* Ha, ha, he. Quid tu dicis, Musæe?

‘*Mus.* Equidem ego parum intellexi.

‘*Ign.*

Ign. Tu es gallicrista, vocatus a coxcomb; nunquam faciam te Legistam.

Dul. Nunquam, nunquam; nam ille fuit universitans.

Ign. Sunt magni idiotæ, & clerici nihilorum, illi universitantes: miror quomodo spendisti tuum tempus inter eos.

Mus. Ut plurimum versatus sum in logica.

Ign. Logica? Quæ villa, quod burgum est logica?

Mus. Est una artium liberalium.

Ign. Liberalium? Sic putabam. In nomine Dei, stude artes parcas & lucrosas: non est mundus pro artibus liberalibus jam.

Mus. Deditus etiam fui amori philosophiæ.

Ign. Amori? Quid! Es pro bagaschiis & strumpetis? Si custodis malam regulam, non es pro me, sursum reddam te in manus parentum iterum.

Mus. Dii faxint.

It is not so much our business to give an account of the play as of its present form, and the merit of its editor, Mr. Sidney Hawkins. The author and his work seem to have been equally unfortunate. Mr. Ruggle is almost forgotten; and his play was preserved only in an imperfect copy, taken from the actors' representation, with the numerous errors which must deform a manuscript of this kind. His editor endeavours to support his dying fame; and the edition before us is much more perfect and correct than any other that we have seen. Mr. Hawkins has raked in the rubbish of antiquity, but we cannot compliment him on the gold which he has discovered: in this instance, however, we must blame the soil, not the culture. We wish only that he had 'culled the choicest;' and, when he found many tares with the corn, that he had left the greatest part of the crop behind. In the Introduction, he gives an account of the life of Mr. Ruggle, and a pretty extensive description of the king's visit to Cambridge, and of the success of *Ignoramus*. Many of the facts brought together with much labour, and elucidated with a minute microscopical care, are very uninteresting. The notes are more curious; and the legal intelligence is very valuable in a work, whose wit must evaporate without some information of this kind. Yet we ought to observe that, independent of the principal character, the drama itself, which is taken from Giambattista Porta, is conducted with great skill; the other characters are well supported, and the incidents and situations often highly humorous. Two English translations have appeared: that by Richard Codrington is by much the best. We shall select a short history of the principal hero: we believe it has never been printed.

About the beginning of the year 1611, the university of Cambridge became engaged in a contest with the mayor of the town

town and the corporation, on the question, which of the two, the vice-chancellor of the university, or the mayor of the town, was entitled to precedence of the other. The incident which gave immediate rise to this contest, which was at length terminated in 1612, by a decision of the privy-council, in favour of the vice-chancellor, was this, that the then mayor, Thomas Smart, had, at the Guildhall of the town, in the presence of the vice-chancellor, claimed, and accordingly seated himself in, the superior place, as his due, which it was contended belonged of right to the vice-chancellor, but which, notwithstanding, Smart continued to occupy, till he was forcibly removed from it by the vice-chancellor's attendants. In the conduct of the dispute on behalf of the mayor and corporation, one Brakyn, a common lawyer, the then recorder of Cambridge, had shewn himself very active, and might probably, if he did not at first set it on foot, at least contribute to keep it alive. This latter circumstance, as it is imagined, first introduced to Mr. Ruggle's notice and acquaintance the professional character of the practisers of the common law; so far however is certain, that it suggested to him the thought, and induced him to form a resolution of exposing it to ridicule, in a representation on the stage before king James, who had long been, and still was, expected to pay a visit to Cambridge, and to whose prejudices against lawyers such a subject was peculiarly suited.'

'What might be Mr. Ruggle's reason for thus venting his resentment is no where expressly declared: to justify it, we may suppose Brakyn to have been a pedant in his profession; busy, active, and crafty, in his management of the business of the corporation, caballing with the members thereof, and turning the contentions among them to his own advantage; and, if to these particulars we add, that he began and encouraged the contests between the town of Cambridge and the university, we have something like a reason for the severity with which Mr. Ruggle has chastised him.

'How long a time was spent in composing this comedy we are no where informed; but it is probable that one inducement to his writing it was the prospect of a visit to the university by king James, which had been for some time hoped for, and the certain assurance that it would afford him delight.'

Of the little that is told of the life of Mr. Ruggle, we shall select a part.

'The natural bent of his inclination seems to have led him to the study of polite literature; in the prosecution whereof he set himself to acquire a competent knowledge of the French and Italian languages; in the latter of which he has left behind him evidence of his skill, as will hereafter appear, and to form an intimate acquaintance with the writings of the several Greek and Roman poets, historians, and orators. Of the Roman poets, he seems to have been more especially conversant with the

the works of Virgil, Ovid, Lucan, Terence, Plautus, Catullus, Juvenal, Persius, and Martial; and among the Italian writers, the productions of Giambattista Porta, a Neapolitan philologist, and particularly his comedies are found to have attracted his notice and engaged his attention.

His reputation for learning and skill in all polite literature was not confined to his own college, nor indeed to the university of Cambridge, but became so general, that it was an inducement with many parents and guardians for placing young men at Clare-hall, in preference to any other seminary; and it was doubtless owing to the same circumstance, that the two sons of Pallavicini, knight, of Baberham in Cambridgeshire, were committed to his tuition.

To these testimonies in favour of his literary merit, his college themselves added theirs with respect to his justice and integrity, by nominating him to the office of one of the two taxers in the university for the year 1604, the duty of which office Fuller, in his History of Cambridge, p. 11. informs us was, originally, to assess, tax, or rate the rents at which the houses or lodgings belonging to the townsmen should be let out to the scholars of the university, the number of colleges being at that time insufficient to lodge them; but in later times, the bounty of founders having provided for scholars habitations and abodes rent-free, the duty of the taxers was made to consist in the examination of the weights and measures by which all sorts of food are sold in Cambridge, but especially such sorts as are furnished to the members of the university: nevertheless, his success in the university does not, on the whole, seem to have been adequate to his merit, nor does it appear that his deserts were of sufficient avail to raise him to any considerable rank; for the only emolument which they ever procured him, excepting indeed the before mentioned annuity, was a fellowship in Clare-hall, and this of taxer was the only public office to which we find that he was ever elected; but, in addition to his academical honours in his own university, it is found that, when king James, in August 1605, visited Oxford, Mr. Ruggle being then a master of arts of Cambridge, was admitted to the same degree in this latter.

The notes are illustrations of the law-terms; of the Latin of Ignoramus, which only expresses, in barbarous words, the idiom, and often the phrases or proverbs of the English; and the peculiar customs of that æra. Much information of this kind is scattered with no sparing hand through the pages of this volume. We receive it with thankfulness; but we must own our ingratitude: we have more than once dropt asleep over pages, which have been compiled and written with no little toil. The rust of antiquity is a never failing opiate.

Transactions of the Society, instituted at London, for Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce. Vol. V. 8vo. 4s. in Boards. Cadell.

THE annual Volume of this truly respectable Society we receive with great pleasure: it shows that they continue to be attentive to the objects of their institution, and that their attention is, in many instances, crowned with success.

Mr. White's account of his extensive plantations at Butsfield, in the bishoprick of Durham, is very interesting. It is pleasing to see such an addition to the national riches and strength; to reflect, that his rising woods cover only a black moorish soil, or a loose trembling morass, of little utility, unless it be drained at a great expence. This spot, like the rest of this island, was formerly covered with wood; and its remains are still dug up. The forests fell a sacrifice to the iron works: smelting was performed in a wood fire; and the furnace was a monster, which fed on the greatest ornaments of our island. If the woods again rise to distinction, we shall not be exposed to its ravages: cinders are now used, and there is a prospect of even saving the bitumen, separated in coaking the coal, for useful purposes. We shall extract an observation of some importance to the planter, and of great consequence to the admirers of landscapes.

'The trees in general flourish very well in both plots, particularly the larch, birch, green-tree, Scotch-fir, and mountain-ash; amongst which, the former distinguishes itself very much, being in all places considerably larger, and in some near twice the size of any other kind; and it appears also to afford a very salutary shade and shelter to those trees that partake of its influence: this convinces me of a great error I have committed, in planting Scotch-firs, by way of nurses, which do not appear to answer the intended purpose of advancing the growth of the other trees; on the contrary, I find them great tyrants amongst their neighbours, from the strength and great extent of their branches; also from the close covert of the leaves, which not only exclude the air, but prevent a due admission of the rains.

'The larch is not only superior in beauty and hardness, but furnishes more durable and valuable timber; and is likewise a more tender and friendly nurse to more delicate trees, being furnished with a great number of small pliant branches, well garnished with leaves; and which, from their flexible quality, will yield and give place to the adjacent trees, and are not subject to lash and buffet them; they also more readily admit the rains than the Scotch-fir, and are not liable to receive injury in snowy seasons, when the branches of the latter are frequently mutilated, and the trees sometimes totally destroyed: the effect of which I have too fatally experienced.'

The larch is, for many purposes, a more serviceable tree than the Scotch-fir, whose timber is seldom of importance in this country. It is particularly so, because it continues, with little alteration, for many years in water.

The management of turnep-feed, and of the ground when the plants begin to appear, in order to avoid the depredations of the fly, are very useful. The experiments with the drill-machine, and the comparison between the drill and broadcast husbandry, begin now to assume a more consistent shape. In many respects, the drill appears to be preferable. The Society's correspondents seem to speak in favourable terms of Mr. Cooke's machine: Mr. Winter prefers his own, and promises a drawing and a model of it.

In this volume are some accounts of the *racine de disette*, which appears evidently to be a species of beet. The seed sent to the Society, and distributed to the members, was probably sown too late. The plants did not attain the size which has been described; but the plant now begins to be common, and more seed is daily expected from the continent.

The method of destroying the red spider is to dip matches in tincture of *assa foetida*, and next to roll them in a powder, consisting of equal parts of brimstone and Scotch snuff. The matches were lighted and put in the hot-house, which was then shut up close. M. Ailway destroyed the ants with a solution of sublimate, of which four ounces were dissolved in two gallons of water. We suppose corrosive sublimate is meant; but the term *white* sublimate being employed, which is sometimes applied to vitriolated zinc, occasions a little doubt and difficulty. The ley is said not to affect the roots of trees when they are watered with it.

Mr. Pike's machine for cutting chaff, which is described in this volume, seems an elegant and an useful invention. We have often seen it tried with success.

In the department of Chemistry, there is a description of an useful coating for retorts, and of the method of stopping any crack which may occur during an operation, even in the intensest fire. The coating indeed renders cracks much less common than in the usual ways of using retorts. For this method we must refer to the volume.

In the part of the volume allotted to the Polite Arts, is an account of the method of painting probably used by the ancients. The vehicle is wax; and it is employed by combining it, in a melted state, with an equal weight of gum mastick, powdering the mixture when cold, and mixing the powder with the colour, in strong gum-water. It is afterwards varnished with white wax.

The

The premium for teaching to write and speak Latin correctly and fluently, was adjudged to Dr. Egan. His pupils, five in number, were from eleven to fifteen years of age; and they are said to be acquainted, at the same time, pretty extensively, with Greek and French, as well as to have attained a correct knowledge of English. Dr. Egan gives some account of the methods he employs; but they are not uncommon ones. Latin or French are usually spoken by boys of a certain standard, and an emulation is excited, by marking the number of errors, which each boy has committed in a day. We do not blame the attention of the Society in this work, or think it misdirected, for it is proper to try the experiment extensively; but we own we have scarcely ever seen a real well-founded scholar come from these hot-houses of literature. Like other plants, in the same situation, they have the form and the semblance of what they ought to be, but they have seldom the solid substance.

The next object is of great importance, viz. a machine for teaching blind persons music, and to enable them to preserve their compositions without the assistance of a copyist. The machine cannot be understood without the plate; but it is a very ingenious one, and the methods of noting are correct, and readily understood.

In Manufactures, we have some farther information respecting the silk-worm. Mr. Swayne thinks that mulberry leaves alone should be employed for the food; and that, instead of hastening the birth of the larva, it should be protracted by keeping the eggs from heat till the tree is in full leaf. Fewer trees will then be sufficient. Miss Rhodes has been unfortunate: a chilling cold wind, about the time of spinning, seemed to congeal the yellow fluid of which the silk is formed, and prevented any silk from being spun. In this climate, therefore, artificial heat, from stoves, must be sometimes necessary. We still think that our attention can be directed to more profitable pursuits. The worms must certainly be often cleaned, and they will require much attention, and a great number of trees, to supply them with food.

The Chinese hemp seems not likely to be an object of manufacture, as the length of time required for steeping, and the difficulty of separating the fibrous parts, will probably prevent it. The seeds do not seem to retain long their vegetative powers. Another kind of hemp, from the same spot, promises to be more useful, if it can be imported at an easy rate, which, we find, can hardly be expected. The seeds may be more successful, and perhaps we may learn how to manage the former kind with better effect.

In the class of Mechanics, is a clear description, illustrated by a plate, of Mr. Westgarth's machine for raising water by the force of a falling stream. There are situations in which it may undoubtedly be useful; but the weight of the quantity raised can very seldom equal that of the water which falls. The only advantages that can be taken are those of percussion, and the momentum acquired in falling; but these, with respect to water, are very limited.

In the department which relates to Colonies and Trade, we receive an account of a kind of earth which appears to be a very good substitute for Dutch terras, or Italian puozzolane. It rises in Jamaica; but the distance prevents it from being of much use in this kingdom.

To these papers are subjoined, lists of the rewards which have been bestowed by the Society; of the works and models presented to it; of the officers of the Society, and Chairmen of the several committees.

In the premiums offered, the Society preserves its attention to the useful arts, without neglecting those contrivances of elegance which often secure to a polished nation the commerce of other countries, who have not advanced so far in the works of fancy and taste. We shall select two of the objects: we believe both are new, and they are of the more useful kind.

‘Candles from resin.—To the person who shall discover to the Society the best method of so reducing the inflammable quality of resin, as to adapt it to the purposes of making candles fit for common use, at a price much inferior to that of candles made of tallow only; the gold medal, or thirty guineas.

‘Six pounds at least of the candles so prepared, with an account of the process, to be delivered to the Society on or before the first Tuesday in December, 1787.’

‘Fine bar iron.—To the person, in England or Wales, who shall make in the year 1788, the greatest quantity of bar iron, not less than ten tons, with coak from coak pigs, equal in quality to the best iron imported from Sweden or Russia, and as fit for converting into steel; the gold medal.

‘Samples, not less than one hundred weight, with certificates that the whole quantity is of equal quality, to be produced to the Society on or before the first Tuesday in January, 1789.’

The ornaments of this volume consist in the plates. The frontispiece is a beautiful engraving of Mars, by Bartolozzi, from the statue in the Society's great room, by Mr. Bacon. The statue is beautifully proportioned, and anatomically correct. The expression of the face is that of firm, steady intrepidity; but the eyes are directed to something above: we should suspect that he is braving the thunderbolts of Jove. The other plates relate to the subjects. They are engraved

on

on paper made in imitation of the French colombier, generally used for mezzotinto plates; and it appears to be a very neat, and very successful imitation of it.

A Treatise upon Gravel and upon Gout, in which the Sources of each are investigated, and effectual Means of preventing, or of removing these Diseases, recommended. Small 8vo. 2s. 6d. in Boards. Cadell.

THIS is not a second edition: it is in reality a new work, almost in every respect the opposite of the former one, which we mentioned in our Sixty-second Volume, p. 182. We there combated every part of our author's chemical doctrine; and he has changed every part of it. We are glad to see that he is open to conviction: it would have been candid if he had acknowledged his source, and the foundation of his new discoveries, which are, in reality, contained in that part of our Foreign Literary Intelligence, referred to in our review of his first edition. It is true that he has separated the calculous matter by means of an acid, which was not done before; but it is a consequence so immediately deducible from the existence of a neutral in the urine, that it can scarcely be termed a discovery.

In the Memoir of M. Barthollet, the separate acid is so clearly pointed out, with its excess in gouty paroxysms, and its usual combinations (p. 138 and 139 of the volume referred to), that our author's additions must seem very inconsiderable. If we examine what they are, we shall find that he is still in leading strings: he has scarcely ventured on more than one step, without the support of Scheele's Essay, whose authority we quoted. The experiment with magnesia is not new; but it is carried farther than in any other author, and explained more satisfactorily: we shall transcribe it.

‘ I determined next upon endeavouring to combine this matter with magnesia. It appeared probable, that if it was an acid it would admit, like other acids, of being united with the earth of that name. Having obtained a concretion of a reddish colour, of firm texture, and of great specific gravity, a few grains of it, with an equal quantity of calcined magnesia, after being rubbed together in a glass mortar, were put into a vial with three or four drachms of distilled water; they were made to boil for a few minutes by being suspended over the fire: the whole was then poured upon a filtering paper, and the fluid which immediately passed through was of a yellow colour, like the solution of calculus in caustic alkali. I was satisfied from the appearance of it that a combination had

taken place. It became turbid as it cooled, and there was deposited an ash-coloured powder, which, upon examination, proved to be neither magnesia nor calculus, but a compound of the two. This powder was immediately re-dissolved on making a second application of heat, and the whole became transparent again. To one part of the solution in this state, a drop or two of muriatic acid was added, and the matter of the calculus was precipitated; a small quantity of caustic alkali was mixed with another part of it, and a deposition of magnesia took place. In the first instance, the muriatic acid united with the magnesia so as to separate the calculus; in the second, the caustic alkali attached itself to the matter of the calculus, and caused the magnesia to be precipitated.

‘The compound of the calculus with magnesia is dissolved by water in a much larger proportion than the calculus alone. If a little muriatic acid be mixed with a saturated solution while hot, the matter of the calculus, separated in the form of a white powder, will be in sufficient quantity to give to the whole the consistence of cream. After standing for some time, the particles of this powder, by getting together, become larger, and subside to the bottom. If an acid be added to a very diluted solution of the compound, and the whole permitted to remain at rest for a few hours, the precipitate appears in fine crystals adhering to the sides of the vial.’

By means of the muriatic acid, the concreting acid was separated, and examined in its separate state; and this experiment will perhaps lead to something of consequence. Authors have told us, that the muriatic acid produces no change on the urine; but Bergman hinted that, after some time, it was probable a precipitation might take place: our author waited, and found that the precipitation at last appeared. One consequence must follow, that the earth with which it is combined could not be calcareous, if the acid was either the saccharine or the phosphoric. It is highly probable that the concreting acid was united only with the mucilaginous matter, and with the volatile alkali. We know that the saccharine acid is contained in mucilages, and that bodies of this kind sheath and conceal its acid qualities; but the affinity with lime seems to prove that the concreting acid is not the saccharine; for it then would form an insoluble compound: on the contrary, the strong attraction for magnesia, the separation by the muriatic acid, with every other affinity and property, seem to show, that the concreting acid is the phosphoric; that it is united to the volatile alkali; and that the little calcareous earth contained in the urine is what enters into the composition as a watery liquid only, or into the animal mucilage as

one of its ingredients. For the other parts of his chemical enquiry, our author is indebted to Barthollet's Memoir, and probably to our analysis of it.

As the nature of the acid is not explained in this volume, and its source is equally obscure, it is somewhat presumptuous to attempt to account for its evolution. Our author, however, resolved on forming a theory, tells us, that the acid in the stomachs of gouty people separates the concreting acid from the other bodies with which it is combined. If it is the phosphoric acid, as is highly probable, and generally believed*, the acid of the stomach is unequal to the task; but it is impossible to employ it for the purpose, since no acid exists in the blood; and we know of no acid, combined with any other body, in the blood, which, by a double elective attraction, can effect it. The fact, of acid abounding in the stomachs of gouty people, cannot be eluded; but it is equally true, that no acid appears in the blood; and when the concreting acid is found in a larger quantity than usual in the urine, their different natures prevent us from thinking that the one can be the consequence of the other. If our author goes to school again, he may learn somewhat more probable; and a third edition, very different from the two former, may give us a farther account of this intricate subject. We have endeavoured to assist him with some hints.

In the other parts of this volume, which relates to the management of those who labour under gravel and gout, the principles seem nearly the same. In the application there is some variety, and scarcely any chemical mistakes: if we assume a little merit, in this respect, we hope the author will forgive us, and not urge us to compare his emendations with our former remarks, by appearing to consider the friendly hints of a Reviewer of so little importance, as not to deserve an acknowledgment.

The Families of Plants, with their natural Characters. Translated from the last Edition, published by Dr. Reichard, of the Genera Plantarum. 2 Vols. 8vo. 16s. in Boards. Johnson.

THIS is the most complete edition of the *Genera Plantarum* which has yet appeared; for in this light we shall consider it, before we mention its merits as a translation. The genera must be carefully and accurately distinguished; since, on the exactness with which they are formed, on the precision

* From the late examinations of the *acidum perlatum*, the latter labours of M. Scheele, compared with Berthollet's experiments, the identity of the concreting and phosphoric acids may be almost said to be demonstrated.

with which they are defined, the whole science necessarily depends. They are the first links, designed to connect the numerous species, and to form a subordinate association. This first association must be a natural one; and, though sometimes the size and habit of the plant is disregarded in forming it, this irregularity is only allowed to prevent worse consequences.—Linnæus, in his later days, neglected this work: at least the sixth edition of the genera was followed by supplements, which were not incorporated in one work till the year 1778, when Dr. Reichard published an edition at Franckfort. It was not only from the former editions, with the aid of two mantissas, that Dr. Reichard printed his own; but in this period Dr. Murray, from the latest communications with the great northern naturalist, had re-published that part of the *Systema Naturæ* which related to vegetables, and inserted in it all the observations which Linnæus could furnish. This work we have had occasion to quote, under the title of the thirteenth edition of the *Systema Vegetabilium*; but we must now mention that, in 1784, Dr. Murray's fourteenth edition, with numerous additions and alterations, appeared. This was not all the new information: the younger Linnæus, in 1781, published a supplement, chiefly from a collection of plants collected at Surinam. Various travellers had brought the treasures of different countries to the common stock, which were not reduced into one volume: Forster's *Genera*, Thunberg's *Flora Japonica & nova Genera Plantarum*, L'Heritier's *Stirpes Novæ Plantarum*, were not the least considerable. All their descriptions are now collected together, and form a very copious treasure of the vegetable kingdom. From the communications of that very intelligent naturalist, Mr. Dryander, the translators have been able to correct some mistakes. The genus *myristica*, inserted in the *Supplementum*, from the authority of Sonnerat, is found not to be the plant from which the nutmeg is produced. M. Thunberg has given the true description, which is now adopted. Even in the late edition of Dr. Murray, the *russelia* and *vatilia* are characterized as different plants, which are in reality the same; the *licuala* and *nipa* are separated from the other palms.

The translation is executed with the usual accuracy of the Litchfield Society: the language is become more natural either to our understandings, or the translators are more expert in employing it. The uncouthness and disagreeable appearance is much lessened. The work is printed in the manner of Linnæus, which is admirably adapted to catch the eye, and facilitate the investigation.

The English generic names are added, seemingly against the con-

conviction of the translators, as they are not in general comprehensive, and not equally adapted to the English and foreign botanist. There is evidently much advantage in English generic names, and we would recommend some attention to their improvement, that they may with propriety comprehend the English species. In foreign floras, they are comparatively of little use; and the translator's proposal of adopting the Latin generic names is preferable. Many other strong objections are adduced, but they will fail to convince the English botanist that he should not call his own plants by their own names: even when he considers genera as associations, he will always think that the name of the kind should have some reference to that of individuals. So that, though we would not wholly reject the English names, we think that they should be improved, and employed only when they treat of English genera.

To this translation is added an accented catalogue of generic and trivial names; numerous botanical observations of great importance, from the best botanists; the natural orders, from the *Philosophia Botanica*: an index of generic, and another of English and Scotch names. We cannot conclude without expressing our obligations to the Society for their labours, which are in many respects truly valuable.

A Concise Account of a new Chymical Medicine, entitled, Spiritus Æthereus Anodynus, or, Anodyne Æthereal Spirit. By William Tickell. Small 8vo. 2s. Wallis.

WE have always endeavoured to discountenance the illiberal conduct of those who aim at attracting attention, by concealing common preparations under the garb of exaggerated panegyric, or studied misrepresentations. It takes the mind by surprise, and seizing on credulity, fascinates the judgment; or, gratifying the natural eagerness after specifics, precludes every examination. Mr. Tickell's work is somewhat reprehensible, for the extravagant praises which are bestowed on his preparation, praises which perhaps no medicine is excellent enough to deserve; and, for the little discrimination with which it is recommended, in complaints of very different natures. Mr. Tickell's character and knowledge forbid us to think that he means to deceive others, or that he is entirely deceived himself. There are some effects peculiar to his preparation which may connect these various recommendations; and, if he is blameable, it is in not pointing them out with sufficient precision. In other views Mr. Tickell, we think, rises above the generality of those gentlemen with whom, while

while his method of preparing the medicine is a secret, he must necessarily be classed. It appears to us, after a careful examination of his work, after comparing what he has said, with the medicine in different circumstances, that he has plainly told the world what it is. His words are indeed weighed with care: he knows what he has told, and what he has concealed; but he does not know that, notwithstanding its volatility, his anodyne spirit may be analyzed, and the proportion of its ingredients ascertained. We shall not engage in it, since probably the world will not receive any benefit from the discovery; and, while the inventor, or rather perhaps the improver, continues to prepare it so well, we have not a wish to draw off the mask. As a chemical preparation, we have examined it with attention, and we are certain that in that view it deserves much praise. In one specimen we found a very slight odour of the volatile sulphureous acid †, but it could not injure the medicine; and those who know with how much difficulty it is avoided entirely, will excuse it. In general it contains no uncombined acid, no uncombined spirit of wine*, unless the other ingredients guard it from the action of dephlogisticated spirit of nitre. Hoffman's anodyne liquor is pretty well known to be a mixture of æther, probably of spirit of wine and of the sweet oil, which rises after the distillation of æther. A receipt which now lies before us, we have much reason to think a genuine one. It directs an ounce of the first product, in making æther, to be added to an equal quantity of the second, containing æther and spirit of wine, and to both these twelve drops of the aromatic oil. Mr. Tickell has told us that the oil will combine with spirit of wine: we did not find that it would in any sufficient proportion; but it is easy to see the intermede which is necessary, and which is employed in his preparation. We have imitated it so exactly in an extemporaneous method, from chemical materials, that the difference of taste, odour, and specific gravity, cannot be distinguished. But the inventor need not be alarmed: no attempt will ever be made to encroach upon his right.

Hoffman spoke highly of the virtues of his liquor; and, after we have detracted from those encomiums what may be allowed to the fondness of an inventor for the child of his own

† M. Pelletier, of the French Academy, has lately informed us of an easy method of rectifying æther, when contaminated, in this manner.

* One fact is worth remarking, perhaps Mr. Tickell can explain it. At the bottom of the phials (we employed the milder uncoloured spirit) a fluid subsides, heavier than the spirit, and different from it, though transparent. We were almost certain that it was not water only, for we tasted it through a syphon. On dropping in a few crystals of salt of tartar, the water which it seized on swam between the spirit and the subsiding fluid, carrying with it a pink-coloured powder.

talents, great merit will still remain. We have no doubt, and we speak from experience, that its virtues are different from those of æther. As a narcotic and a stimulant, it is superior: as an antispasmodic, probably inferior to æther. We have not perceived any diuretic effects from it, though in other experiments it may be more obvious. In various emergencies, the powers of an active stimulant appear very different. It more than once has appeared diuretic, and occasionally laxative, while in reality it is neither, and acts only by rousing nature to make the proper exertions to relieve herself. We suspect that Mr. Tickell distrusts its diuretic powers, by adding the specific pill, which, whether it be the squill, or Bächer's tonic pill, is of great service. The narcotic power of his medicine is so clearly pointed out, that those who have ever ventured to use other narcotics, in similar situations, cannot mistake them.

The cases in this volume are not numerous, but they are related with great propriety; and the general observations will not detract from the author's credit. Mr. Tickell is known to be a judicious and able apothecary.

On the whole, if Mr. Tickell's merit consists in reviving the use of Hoffman's anodyne liquor, and advancing more nearly to the ideas of Hoffman, in this preparation, than *practical* chemists have hitherto done, he deserves considerable commendation. The answer to Dr. Adair, in the Appendix, is a short one. Mr. Tickell denies that it undergoes seven distillations, and in *effect* denies that it is dulcified spirit of vitriol, disguised by cochineal. As a preparation, indeed, it is more perfect than the sweet spirit of vitriol; and, as a medicine, is extremely different from it. One charge our author allows, that his liquor has succeeded where the *common* anodyne liquor has failed. We believe it. The next charge relates to the stronger spirit. Mr. Tickell denies that he ever refused it to those who had judgment to employ it. He has now advertised it for sale. It might have perhaps been better if he had suffered the objection to remain in its full force, by continuing to withhold what may be improperly employed. We know it to be a medicine of too great efficacy to be in every one's hands.

We must object to Mr. Tickell, that he has praised too warmly, and that his language is a little too much like that of the alchemist. The constant fire for ninety-six hours may be relished in Basil Valentine, but, for a modern chemist, is somewhat too continued. We ought not to blame him for speaking ambiguously; for we own that, while Mr. Tickell prepares his medicine faithfully, and sells it at a moderate price,

price, we shall be unwilling to publish what we have discovered. The answer to Dr. Adair is pointed, moderate, and clear. He has mentioned the doctor's errors on this subject; but we need not enlarge on them, as they are now in a great measure corrected. Dr. Adair is too wise not to avail himself of hints; and too prudent, ostentatiously to notice them.

An Academy for Grown-Horsemen, containing the Completest Instructions for Walking, Trotting, Cantering, Galloping, Stumbling, and Tumbling. Illustrated with Copper Plates. By Geoffrey Gambado, Esq. Royal 4to. 1l. 1s. Hooper.

WHETHER the book was written to illustrate the engravings, or the latter were executed to explain the former, we shall not determine. They are, however, well suited to each other; for the ironical pleasantry of Geoffrey Gambado, equery to the doge of Venice, is no less entertaining than the whimsical caricatures of H. Bunbury, esq.—Geoffrey illustrates horsemanship, by praising the absurdities to be avoided; the facetious painter points the ridicule so strongly, that every picture becomes a forcible lesson; but no account can be given of so miscellaneous and excentric a work, a work consisting of fragments, of shreds and patches, though sometimes of splendid ones. The author must speak for himself, and be first permitted to give his own description of a horse.

‘ The height of a horse is perfectly immaterial, provided he is higher behind than before. Nothing is more pleasing to a traveller than the sensation of continually getting forward; whereas the riding a horse of a contrary make, is like swarming the bannisters of a stair-case, when, though perhaps you really advance, you feel as if you were going backwards.

‘ Let him carry his head low, that he may have an eye to the ground, and see the better where he steps.

‘ The less he lifts his fore legs, the easier he will move for his rider, and he will likewise brush all the stones out of his way, which might otherwise throw him down. If he turns out his toes as well as he should do, he will then disperse them to the right and the left, and not have the trouble of kicking the same stone a second time.

‘ A bald face, wall eyes, and white legs (if your horse is not a grey one) is to be preferred: as, in the night, although you may ride against what you please, yourself, no one will ride against you.

‘ His nose cannot project too much from his neck, for by keeping a constant tight reign on him, you will then sit as firm as if you were held on.

‘ A horse's

‘ A horse’s ears cannot well be too long : a judicious rider steers his course, by fixing his eyes between them. Were he cropt, and that as close as we sometimes see them now a days, in a dusky evening the rider might wander the lord knows where.’

We shall add a specimen of his directions for riding.

‘ If then you bend your body well forward, your rump sticking properly out behind, with your legs projected, I shall have hopes of you ; you cannot, I think, fail of soon equalling my most sanguine expectations ; and, after having attained this excellence (an excellence, let me tell you, arrived at but by few, and those, men of the first knowledge and science, such as the fellows of colleges, the livery-men of London, or, perhaps, the crew of a man of war), I would advise you, without delay, to attempt another step towards equestrian perfection ; that is, on riding either eastward or westward, to make your toes point due north and south, or vice versa.

‘ Thus your spurs may be brought into play, with little or no exertion ; and thus, in turning sharp round a post, your horse may be prevented from hurting himself by running against it.

‘ The standing up in your stirrups, while trotting, in the above position, has a most elegant and genteel effect ; and I would have you make an essay to accomplish it, no doubt you will succeed, if you have the genius I take you to have.

‘ A horse has various methods of getting rid of his man ; at present I will only advert to one. If your horse tumbles down with you, he will sometimes get up again, and should you not do the same in concert with him, and your foot remain in the stirrup, he may probably extend your airing whilst you remain in that aukward position ; and however desirous you may be to remain behind, on you must go, during his pleasure. Now, of all the ways of conveyance that I have had a taste of, this is the least agreeable ; if it should be the same to you, provide yourself with a pair of patent stirrups ; with them, your attachment to your horse may be as short as you please ; they have done wonders ; can I say more ? I am happy in being able to bear testimony of their astonishing efficacy in the case of a friend of mine, the rev. Mr. C——, A. M. when of Pembroke-college, Cambridge ; by transcribing his own words at the conclusion of an advertisement, he inserted in all the papers addressed to the patentee. Having purchased a pair of his stirrups, and falling, one afternoon, as he was accustomed, from his horse, he says, “ but, thanks to Providence, and your noble invention, *my leg and your stirrup* coming off at the same instant, I escaped unhurt.” To what a pitch of perfection is human ingenuity arrived !’

The

The work is dedicated to lord Townshend; but the dedicator declines entering into a train of common-place compliments, on the laurels which his lordship might acquire by his regiment's adopting the Gambado system; and, since the laurel is not cultivated in the piping times of peace, he concludes with wishing that his lordship may long enjoy his *bays*. On the whole, this is a very pleasant morceau, and evidently written by a man of genius and abilities; perhaps 'tis but to try his strength that now he sports,' while from this jeu d'esprit he may acquire the confidence to undertake a more important work.—We hope that we shall not be mistaken.

A Collection of Original Royal Letters, written by King Charles I. and II. King James II. and the King and Queen of Bohemia; together with Original Letters, written by Prince Rupert, Charles Louis, Count Palatine, the Duchess of Hanover, and several other distinguished Persons; from the Year 1619, to 1665. By Sir George Bromley, Bart. Illustrated with elegant Engravings of the Queen of Bohemia, Prince Rupert, Emanuel Scrope Howe, and Ruperta, natural Daughter of Prince Rupert; and a Plate of Autographs and Seals. 8vo. 10s. 6d. in Boards. Stockdale.

WE are informed that the originals of these Letters came into the hands of sir George Bromley, in consequence of his being descended from Ruperta, natural daughter to prince Rupert, third son of Frederic, king of Bohemia, and nephew to Charles the First, king of England. The greater part of them is written by and to the Palatine family. They are mostly in French, and, in many of them, cyphers are used. The collection consists of one hundred and forty-four Letters; the first of which is dated in the year 1619, and the last in 1677. They relate chiefly to the distresses of the palatine family. In one of them, the king of Bohemia addresses his consort in the following affectionate terms: 'Plut à Dieu qu'eussions un petit coin au monde, pour y vivre contents ensemble, c'est tout le bonheur que je me souhaite.' Would to God that we had a little corner of the world, in which we could live quietly and contentedly together! that is all the happiness I wish for.

Sir George Bromley has prefixed to the Letters a short account of the Palatine family, from which we shall extract the memoirs delivered of prince Rupert, who is celebrated for his knowledge of chemistry and the mechanic arts.

Prince Rupert, third son of the king of Bohemia, by the princess Elizabeth, eldest daughter of king James I. had an edu-

education, like that of most German princes, especially younger brothers, which qualified him for arms; and those who have been the least inclined to favour him admit, that he was well adapted, both by his natural abilities, and his acquired endowments, to form a great commander. When the civil war commenced, he came and offered his sword, when he was scarcely of age, to his uncle, king Charles I. Through the whole war he behaved with great intrepidity; and Mr. Granger observes, that "he possessed, in a high degree, that kind of courage, which is better to attack than defend; and is less adapted to the land service than that of the sea, where precipitate valour is in its element. He seldom engaged but he gained the advantage, which he generally lost by pushing it too far. He was better qualified to storm a citadel, or even mount a breach, than patiently to sustain a siege; and would have furnished an excellent hand to a general of a cooler head."

' In consideration of his services, and on account of his affinity to him, king Charles made prince Rupert a knight of the Garter; and by his letters patent, bearing date at Oxford, the 19th of January, in the nineteenth year of his reign, made him a free denizen; and, on the 24th of the same month, advanced him to the dignity of a peer of England, by the title of earl of Holderness and duke of Cumberland. When the civil war was over, he went abroad with a pass from the parliament; but when the fleet revolted to the prince of Wales, he readily went on board it, where he distinguished himself by the vigour of his counsels. His advice, however, was not followed; but, on the return of the fleet to Holland, the command of it was left to him. He then sailed to Ireland, where he endeavoured to support the declining royal cause; but he was quickly pursued by the superior fleet of the parliament, under Popham and Blake, who, in the winter of the year 1649, blocked him up in the haven of Kinsale. He escaped, however, by making a bold effort, and pushing through their fleet.

' After the Restoration, prince Rupert was invited to return to England, and had several offices conferred upon him. On the 28th of April, 1662, he was sworn a member of the privy council; and, in December following, he was admitted a fellow of the Royal Society. In the year 1666, the king entrusted him, in conjunction with the duke of Albemarle, to command the fleet, when he exhibited all the qualities that are necessary to constitute a great admiral. By his happy return to the fleet, on the 3d of June, he wrested from the Dutch the only victory they had the appearance of gaining; and

and afterwards, on the 24th of the same month, he beat them effectually, pursued them to their own coast, and blocked up their harbour. Indeed, the great intrepidity which prince Rupert displayed, in this naval war, was highly and justly celebrated in his own time; and in the last Dutch war he seemed to retain all the activity and fire of his youth, and beat the enemy in several engagements.

From this time prince Rupert led a quiet, and chiefly a retired life, mostly at Windsor-castle, of which he was governor; and he very much employed himself in the prosecution of chemical and philosophical experiments, as well as in the practice of mechanic arts, for which he was very famous. He is mentioned by foreign authors with applause for his skill in painting; and is considered as the inventor of mezzotinto, of which he is said to have taken the hint from a soldier scraping his rusty fusil. The circumstances are thus related. The prince going out early one morning, observed a centinel at some distance from his post, very busy doing something to his piece. The prince asked what he was about? he replied, that the dew had fallen in the night, had made his fusil rusty, and that he was scraping and cleaning it. The prince looking at it, was struck with something like a figure eaten into the barrel, with innumerable little holes closed together, like friezed work on gold or silver, part of which the soldier had scraped away. From this trifling incident prince Rupert is said to have conceived mezzotinto. He concluded, that some contrivance might be found to cover a brass plate with such a grained ground of fine pressed holes, which would undoubtedly give an impression all black, and that by scraping away proper parts, the smooth superficies would leave the rest of the paper white. Communicating his ideas to Wallerant Vaillant, a painter whom he maintained, they made several experiments, and at last invented a steel roller, cut with tools to make teeth like a file or rasp, with projecting points, which effectually produced the black grounds; those being scraped away, and diminished at pleasure, left the gradations of light. It is said that the first mezzotinto print ever published was executed by his highness himself. It may be seen in the first edition of Evelyn's *Sculptura*; and there is a copy of it in the second edition, printed in 1755.

Prince Rupert also delighted in making locks for fire-arms, and was the inventor of a composition, called from him *prince's metal*; and in which guns were cast. He communicated to the Royal Society his improvements upon gunpowder, by refining the several ingredients, and making it more carefully, by which, as appeared by several experiments, its force was

was augmented, in comparison of ordinary powder, in the proportion of ten to one. He likewise acquainted them with an engine he had contrived for raising water; and sent them an instrument, of which he made use, to cast any platform into perspective, and for which they deputed a select committee of their members to return him their thanks. He was the inventor of a gun for discharging several bullets with the utmost speed and facility; and was the author of sundry other curious inventions. He died at his house in Spring-gardens, on the 29th of November, 1682.'

This volume is adorned with some elegant engravings, taken from original paintings now in the possession of sir George Bromley, excepting one of them, which is copied from a painting in one of the royal palaces. An engraving is also given of a mourning ring, with the hair of king Charles the First in it, which was worn by his sister the queen of Bohemia. This ring is now in the possession of sir George Bromley.

Hydraulic and Nautical Observations on the Currents in the Atlantic Ocean, &c. &c. By Governor Pownall, F.R.S. and F.A.S. 4to. 3s. 6d. Sayer.

THE ingenious writer of this piece submits to the consideration of navigators, some observations on the currents in the Atlantic ocean, as applying to the use of navigation. The studies which he pursued, and the line of service in which he was employed in the early part of his life, led him and enabled him to make these Observations.

The facts and observations which he states and describes, he throws out rather as matters of investigation than as things proved, although some have been determined by observation, and others are of common notoriety: but it appears to him better to state them as matters which require, as they deserve, farther and repeated observations, in a more regular and more scientific course of experiment.

Some of these Observations arose from his comparing notes, if we may so express it, with several of his majesty's commissioned and warrant officers, in the frequent passages he had occasion to make across the Atlantic, in his majesty's ships: other remarks, and the observations upon them, arose from the reports of American masters of trading and fishing vessels, with whom he conversed on the subject when he was governor of Massachusetts province, and whom he found to understand the navigation of this ocean better than the European masters seem to have done; and who, in consequence of that knowledge, made shorter and better passages over it.

The author reasons that, in like manner as the combined operation of attraction between the sun, moon, and earth, being uniform and permanent, produces an uniform and permanent effect in the general tides of the ocean; so the winds, when they are uniform and permanent, produce, by protrusion, currents in the ocean, in like manner permanent and uniform. The currents occasioned by the protrusion of the winds, continue at all times flowing one way, either in the direction of the wind, or in a diverging lateral course, or in a reflexed recoiling current, as the waters piled up against any obstruction find the means of running off, and descending from their forced elevation.

The winds between the tropics, having a general course westwards, protrude the waters of the Atlantic ocean in the same direction, and cause a current running always nearly in the same direction. This general current, in passing through the chain of the Carribbe and Bahama islands, and amongst the cayos of the same, is diverted and drawn from its general course in almost all directions. Where it is not interrupted or disturbed, it keeps its general course, as along the West Indian sea, through the gulf of Mexico, to its bottom; and in the channel between Hispaniola, Cuba, and the cayos and islands of Bahama, to the gulf of Florida. The main current, which runs directly west to the bottom of the gulf of Mexico, being there opposed by the continent, piles up its waters to a considerable height. These aggregated waters run off laterally, and descend as it were down an inclined plane along the coasts of Mexico, Louisiana, and Florida, and, rounding the sable point, it rushes out of the gulf of Florida. The current which runs north-west, through the old Bahama channel, meets, at its embocheure, the current coming north-east round the point from the gulf of Mexico; and these, in one combined current, set through the gulf of Florida, north-easterly. From hence this current, in a bended and expanded flow, sets north-easterly, along the coast of North America, to about north-latitude 41 degrees and a half. The governor then remarks, that this course of the waters, produced by the constant blowing of the trade-winds across the Atlantic ocean, is analogous to currents produced by the periodical monsoons in the southern and Indian seas: he then returns, and takes up the current of the gulf-stream, as it sets along the New England coasts, where we before left it, and, from experienced facts, states the following course and limits of it: namely, that the northern edge of the current lies in $38\frac{1}{2}$ degrees of latitude in the meridian of the island Nantucket; and in the meridian of George's Bank, it is in latitude 39 degrees, where

its course is E. N. E. In the meridian of the isle of Sable, its northern edge is in $41\frac{1}{2}$ degrees; and here its course is E. S. E. and S. E. by E. From hence he traces the course of the current across the Atlantic again, in a south-easterly direction, till it approach the coast of Africa, where it is deflected along the coast at some small distance in a southerly direction, holding that course till it arrive at, and supply the place of those waters, carried by the constant trade-winds from the coast of Africa across the Atlantic, towards the west, as aforesaid; and thus producing a perpetual whirling or circulating current, including within its circuit a considerable breadth of space, forming a kind of eddy, or perhaps returning or lee currents. And this state of the matter he observes, compared by its causes, and in its effects, is the actual fact.

This current, thus revolving in an orbit round the Atlantic ocean, in a continual circulation, it is conformable to the laws of hydraulics that there should be, in the space included within the inner edges of this orbit, an eddy, into which all floating substances, such as wood and weeds, which fall into the general current, shall be finally absorbed. Now the fact is, that weeds, called the Saragosa weeds, as also the gulf-weeds, have been observed at certain latitudes and longitudes within the area of the orbit of this general current, and near on what may be supposed the inner edge of it.

Although there are not in the northern parts of the Atlantic ocean any settled monsoon, or any trade-winds, as between the tropics, yet, this author observes, to the northward of the space above described, a general eastern current takes place, running along the north boundary of this space, to the east southerly, across the Atlantic, towards the coasts of Europe, and sets continually through the straits into the Mediterranean sea; just as the current in the Indian sea sets during the north-east monsoon into the gulf of Persia, and through the Straits of Babel-Mandel into the Red Sea. Various operations and combinations of winds, and various circumstances of banks and elevated ground in this northern part of the Atlantic, may be assigned as causes of this effect. These are not yet sufficiently explored, even not so much as to admit of a theoretic combination. The matter, however, is fact, and of common notoriety, as is the fact that the passage from America to Europe is at least one-third shorter than the passage from Europe to America. It is so much so, that it is a common expression among the American navigators, that *the course is down hill all the way home*, as they used to call England. Governor Pownall then remarks upon the high tides, &c. in the German sea, and English channel: when the south-western

winds have prevailed for any long time about the equinoxes, and set in strong upon the northern coasts of Europe, and veer round west and north, they pile up an aggregate body of waters on the coasts of Norway. If this veering change of the wind happens about the time of the full, or new moon, and about the time of high water on the coast of Norway, this aggregate body of waters, added to the spring tides, pour down into the German ocean such an inundation of waters, as create these *high raging tides* on the Dutch, Flemish, and British coasts, which so much surmount all ordinary defences raised against them. If, under this coincidence of the aforementioned circumstances, the wind should still more veer round with the sun, and come to east, just upon the setting of the tide into the German ocean, which has often happened, this inundation of these *high raging tides* will be blown over to the British coast, and protruded through the channel to the west side of the Dogger's Bank, upon the English coasts, in such a swollen and irresistible current, as hath at times, exceeding all bounds of defence, done so much mischief to, and brought such ruin on, the maritime parts of the country, where the spring tides occasioned by the moon do actually coincide, as above stated, with the *tide formed by protrusion* of the winds; they there come in as the highest possible flood, *cæteris paribus*: when they do not, although combined, actually coincide in the same point of time, there is then always observed to be two tides, succeeding each other at the distance of half an hour, or more, that is to say, the moon-tide, about its usual time, and the great protruded wind-tide, half an hour or more before or after.

The author observes, that this explanation of the manner in which the effect of protrusion of the winds, as well as attraction, operates on the currents and tides of the German sea, he here incidentally makes, to suggest to the landholders of these parts the necessity there is of giving attention to these circumstances, and of taking preparatory precaution to obviate and guard off many of those evils they have repeatedly suffered, at least to guard them against being surprised, although perhaps adequate defence may not be in their power.

He does not, however, mention the foregoing as a precise or complete explanation of this dreadful phenomenon, but observes, that he is engaged in a course of enquiry after every particular of the facts, their circumstance and combination, as far as they may be supposed to form the cause, and create the effect of these *high raging tides* in the German ocean; that he may at least ascertain the prognostics with a sufficient degree of certainty to the purposes of precaution.

Having

Having stated, as above, not a theory without foundation, or a matter as proved, but a hypothetical theorem for investigation by experiment, the writer, instead of drawing conclusions, closes his observations, after pointing out some uses of them, by proposing some queries as matters well worthy of trial and enquiry.

‘ Skilfull navigators, who have acquired a knowledge of the extent to which the northern edge of the Gulf Stream reaches on the New England coast, have learnt in their voyages to New England, New York, or Pennsylvania, to pass the banks of Newfoundland in about 44° or 45° N. latitude, to sail thence, in a course between the northern edge of the Gulf Stream as above described, and the shoals and banks of Sable Island, George’s Bank, and Nantucket, by which they make better and quicker passages from England to America.

‘ By an examination of the currents in the higher latitudes of the northern parts of the Atlantic, and of their course along the coasts of Greenland, and the Esquimaux shores, if they should prove such as the reasoning in this paper leads to, a much quicker passage yet may be found.

‘ By a particular and still more accurate examination of the northern and southern edge of the Gulf Stream, of the variation of these circumstances, as winds and seasons vary; an experimental ascertaining what, where, and of what nature, the lee currents on the edges both inner and outer of the Gulf Stream are; great facilities and assistance must be derived to navigation. The knowledge of this would lead to the ascertaining the eddies or other partial currents in the great space of ocean included within the great circulating current. The knowledge of the western edge of the current which sets south along the coasts of Africa, and of all its variations, as also of the lee currents upon that edge, would be of essential use in navigating to (and perhaps from) the West Indies. A practical knowledge of the variable currents, and how they vary under operation of various causes, in the space aforementioned, as running across the Atlantic, might be of great benefit in forwarding a quick passage from America, perhaps in shortening the passage thither in winter. Various other uses of this enquiry might be pointed out, but to have marked that this hypothetic theorem is not without its use, is sufficient.’

A neat sheet map accompanies the book, upon which the current is marked by a dark shade, very exact as to the northern latitudes of the edges of it; and the shade is lighter and lighter as the stream expands, and grows weaker so as almost to vanish as it approaches the African coast. The under or southern edge is engraven also, but with an indecisive line, as being known with a less degree of certainty.

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History

History of the internal Affairs of the United Provinces, from the Year 1780, to the Commencement of Hostilities in June 1787.
8vo. 5s. Robinsons.

THE United Provinces have, for some years, been the scene of such faction and dissensions as threatened the perpetual abolition of their established form of government, until at length they have been rescued from the despotism of those ambitious and turbulent citizens, who would have sacrificed the interests and independency of their country at the shrine of a foreign power, the inveterate enemy of its liberties. The transactions of this memorable period exhibit in a strong light the violence and usurpations of an aristocracy, and are highly worthy of being minutely related in the history of the republic, as a salutary example to future ages. This appears to be faithfully performed in the work now before us, which, very properly, commences with an account of the constitution of the republic. The author next relates the transactions during the war between the republic and Great Britain, and the dispute with the emperor concerning the claim of the Schelde.

As the peace and government of the United Provinces are now almost completely re-established, we shall make no observation on the author's account of any of the preceding events, but present them with his speculation on the probable issue of the dispute, as it appeared to him two or three months ago.

‘ Having considered the natural progress of the present controversy upon the supposition of its being confined within the limits of the republic, it is natural to enquire respecting the conduct which the neighbouring powers will adopt, and the influence which that conduct will have upon the affairs of Holland. About the period to which we have brought down our narrative, and upon the sudden interruption of the journey of the princess of Orange from Nimeguen to the Hague, the king of Prussia assumed so peremptory a style, that it was imagined that the territories of the republic would be crowded with the troops of this monarch, without his allowing himself a moment's pause for deliberation. His memorials demanded the sudden and exemplary punishment of those by whom his sister had been insulted, and a part of his army was marched without delay into the neighbourhood of Cleves. It was predicted, however, by those who saw deeper into the subject, that he would not proceed in so arduous an affair without circumspection and caution; and thus it has happened in the sequel.

‘ The court of Great Britain has kept pace in the seriousness of its countenance with the court of Berlin. Some demur was said to have been at first excited in the cabinet respecting the nature of that interference, which it was proper for us to adopt in the disputes of the republic. The sovereign, however,
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is doubtless much attached to the cause of a prince, whose prerogatives so nearly resemble his own, and whose house has so long been connected with the royal family of Britain. There is, at present at least, little danger in accommodating the conduct of administration to the predilections of the monarch, and of consequence, whatever jealousies may be supposed to have existed for a moment, they have given way to the pursuit of an uniform mode of conduct. If the question were to become more serious, the measures to be adopted would be a matter of critical consideration. If no opposition originated to decisive measures among the ministers themselves, it is not to be believed that parliament or the nation would quietly submit to the voting the subsidy of a million per annum for the support of the cause of the prince of Orange. The thread-bare topic of the Protestant interest would scarcely serve to apologize for so important a measure, and would probably have little influence but with lord George Gordon. The balance of power in Europe is an argument equally insufficient for the purpose. It has already appeared, that the acquisition that will be made by France, will not be such as to render her in a high degree formidable. The alliances, which Great Britain once cultivated with the powers of the continent; constitute an object much more worthy of her consideration; and, if she can maintain a good understanding with the monarch of Austria and the empress of Russia, she will have little to fear from the intrigues of France with other powers.

4 The situation of the court of Versailles, during so much as has elapsed of the present year, has appeared of so delicate a nature, that some persons have imagined that she will be disposed to take no part in the present controversy, and will leave the faction against the stadtholder to shift for themselves. The event, which took place on the 13th of February, of the death of the count de Vergennes, minister and secretary of state for foreign affairs, was a circumstance unfavourable to the cause of the opposition in Holland. This minister was unquestionably possessed of a very enlightened comprehension respecting the situation of France in regard to foreign powers; and he maintained with such uniformity and dignity the character of this great monarchy, that he may perhaps be considered as having given a greater degree of respectability to his court, than was ever possessed by it in any former period. The dispositions and talents of his successor in office are unknown, and his general influence may well be considered as a matter of doubt and uncertainty. The government of France, in his transactions relatively to the late assembly of the notables, has removed the veil from the imperfections of her situation, and has exposed in the strongest light the derangement of her finances: perhaps she has even exaggerated it. This would not have been of so much consequence if the count de Vergennes had lived, and if it had been thought proper to permit M. de Calonne to retain

his office. But, co-operating with the removal of the two most responsible ministers of the kingdom, it has given rise to an appearance of weakness and imbecility in the present administration, which there may be some reason to suspect has gone farther than appearance.

‘It is not, however, seriously to be believed that the court of France will change the system of politics upon which she has acted for ages, and exhibit in the face of Europe so poor a dereliction of a party, with which she has co-operated, and whose opposition she has animated for so considerable a time. The adoption of such a conduct would have the very worst effect upon her future operations with foreign countries, and would fix a stain upon her policy, which it would be extremely difficult to obliterate. France has not in reality, for several years past, experienced any signal calamity; and, however inopportune may be her present situation, it may easily be conjectured, that a minister of any kind of firmness, decision, and spirit, might readily surmount these obstacles, inspire into our Gallic neighbours their ancient *humeur*, and lead them to a strenuous effort for the glory of their monarch, and the unquestionable advantage of their country.’

Though we differ from this author with regard to some political sentiments, among which is the opinion he professes to entertain, that France would not have been rendered more formidable by the final success of the aristocratical party in Holland; yet we think his account of the internal affairs of the United Provinces is in general judicious and faithful. As he writes, however, in the character of a rigid republican, we sometimes discover in him a latent bias to the side of the now discomfited party.

The History of Great Britain: from the Revolution in 1688 to the Accession of George I. Concluded from p. 137.

IT now remains that we present our readers with some of the information contained in Mr. Cunningham's history, which, being written by one who was intimately acquainted with the principal characters of the time, must have a peculiar title to be regarded as authentic. We mean by this only his testimony respecting the public transactions which happened in his maturer years; for with regard to personages or events, either preceding his birth or coinciding with the period of his childhood, it is probable that he adopted the common opinions of the age. To this source, therefore, is to be ascribed the following character of Cromwell, which seems to bear the impression of a judgment a little warped with the weakness of superstition.

On

‘ On the 3d of September 1658, died Cromwell, the protector of England, who had harrassed the Spaniards in every part of the globe. The insatiable ambition of this man was not to be confined within the limits of Britain. He was influenced, not only with the desire of subjecting his fellow citizens to his tyranny, but of waging war with the neighbouring nations. He preferred the most heroic enterprize with danger, to other pursuits with safety. He did not regard dignity of birth, but the merit of actions; and those actions alone he deemed worthy of the name of meritorious, which were connected with the cause of God and religion. Though this man's death prevented us from discovering the secret resolutions he had taken, and his very name was almost extinguished by the king's restoration, yet the memory of those times will remain to all posterity. For, amidst the heats of religious disputes, which, at that time, had set all Europe in a flame, he was not only a protector of the protestants, but, by means of his ambassador Lockhart, he had sufficient influence to banish king Charles II. from the kingdom of France. Some have asserted, that, had he lived, he would have joined his forces with the Spaniards against France. When he found death approaching, whether he dreamed, or conjectured, or judged from some certain symptoms, that his son Richard would prove but a very weak governor of the commonwealth, he is said to have expressed himself in broken words, as if it had been revealed to him by the Lord, with whom he is said to have been very conversant, that Charles Stuart would certainly be restored to his kingdom; that he would utterly ruin the republican party; and that a dreadful storm was hanging over their heads. It is reported also, that he declared to them what designs he had in his head, and exhorted them, as soon as the breath should be out of his body, to embark themselves on board as well provided a fleet as England had ever fitted out, and to transport themselves to the Indies, where, by preserving their lives abroad, they might be of much more service to their country, than by staying at home to be massacred by kings. But either the love of their native country, and the hopes of pardon, or the desire of ease, or a commendable affection for the royal family, restrained them from following that advice, as well as from curbing the French king.’

In the following short extract, we think the historian ascribes too much to the marriage of Charles the First, with the princess Henrietta of France. She seems not to have been the original cause of the king's troubles, though perhaps, her high spirit may have afterwards contributed to support them.

‘ The king of England demanded Catherine, the king of Portugal's daughter, in marriage, on the same condition of allowing

allowing her the liberty of the popish religion, as had been allowed to his mother on her marriage with Charles I. the source of those intestine dissensions and contests, which the people of England annually commemorate on the 30th of January, when the sermons are not only full of the king's murder, but the crimes of a few are charged upon a whole party; and kings are said to be sent down to us from Heaven with absolute power and authority. The Scots, not approving of such solemn rites for the dead, did, therefore, not see any reason to receive this solemnity in honour of the deceased king: for they thought the faults of the father were not to be commemorated to the honour of his posterity. And the now unheard-of prerogatives of kings, with the new terms and oaths, which were imposed upon the people, were the cause of fresh commotions.'

Mr. Cunningham bears testimony to the innocence of lord Clarendon concerning the sale of Dunkirk; in which he entirely agrees with the evidence exhibited by us to our readers last year, in the review of the volume of the Clarendon State Papers. He likewise confirms the anecdote, of Clarendon's having refused from the French king a pension of ten thousand pounds a year.

The character of bishop Burnet is drawn in a light not very favourable by this historian.

'During these transactions, the presbyterians in Scotland were very roughly treated. Dr. Leighton, archbishop of Glasgow, who was much afflicted at the dissensions of the Scots, sent twelve clergymen into the country to perform holy offices, whom they called Apostles. Among these Mr. Gilbert Burnet was one, who was a young man of a forward disposition, but of a specious appearance of piety. Being sent, sometimes to Saltown, and sometimes to Fenwick, he was wont to interrupt the reapers, and other labourers in the fields, with strange and unusual prayers and sermons. Wherever Burnet came, the country people shunned him: for the Scots are taught to worship God with pure minds, in their own plain words and manner; and every thing that seems novel in religion is apt to alarm the common people. Mr. Burnet made bitter complaints of their obduracy; and, as he was a great reader of the fathers, he did not spare the bishops themselves, to whom, how venerable soever for their age, he would not have allowed the use of a coach, as being a vehicle unknown to the ancient fathers. But he particularly censured archbishop Sharp, who would have chastised him for his freedom, if the other bishops had not interceded for him. At length, through the patronage of duke Hamilton and bishop Leighton, Dr. Burnet became professor of divinity at Glasgow. There he blended together many of the opposite doctrines of Dr. James Arminius and Mr. John Calvin, with great eloquence and reputation, to the no small admi-

admiration of the vulgar. He preached much, and in pompous strains, concerning the contagion of original sin, and the strict preservation of virginity and widowhood, after the example of St. Jerome. In the mean time, he himself married a lady of the noble family of Kennedy, and thereupon fled into England; where, having no estate, no hopes, no certain settlement, he cast himself upon God's providence, and, through the patronage of the duke of Lauderdale, acquired some reputation at court, by occasionally celebrating the praises of the king, and exalting beyond bounds the royal prerogative. He afterwards, growing weary of the court, by the persuasion of Dr. Stillingsfleet and Dr. Lloyd, employed himself in compiling an History of the Reformation. But at last, intermeddling too much with the affairs of the state, he fell into disgrace at court; and had not the duke of York interceded for him, the king would have punished him according to law. And now, after the death of his wife, he forgot St. Jerome, keeping his widowhood no better than he had done his virginity. He became a witness, even against his patron, Lauderdale.'

That of the prince of Orange, afterwards king William, is placed in a far more respectable point of view.

' Though the prince of Orange was naturally reserved, yet he wanted neither quickness of parts, nor readiness of expression, nor a competent share of learning: even De Witt himself, who was an exquisite judge of men, acknowledged, that he had, in his youth, attained to great maturity in every virtue. He was prudent in council, bold in all his undertakings, and fierce in action. There is little reason, at this day, to mix every small failing with the high praises of such a youth. No man in his opinion lived up to the dignity of his nature, whose whole life was spent in acquiring the gifts of fortune, or in gratifying his various appetites and passions. He alone, in his estimation, deserved the name of a man who performed actions worthy of being held in everlasting remembrance. It was his ambition in reality to be what others are proud to seem. He delighted in nothing more than the exercise of genuine benevolence, and the defence of the liberties of mankind. He consulted the interest of his country in matters of religion, though he himself was most attached to the Voetian sect. As to other sects, he thought them all tolerable, even the papists themselves, the Jesuits alone excepted. He looked upon Monday as an unfortunate day to his family; and therefore would never undertake any business of importance on that day. In all accidents of human life, he ascribed much to divine providence, without excluding liberty: but right reason, as being implanted in us by God, was to him the supreme law. He conformed himself to the manners of the Dutch, being reputed sparing of his money; though he would oftentimes contribute to the relief of the public necessities by his own example, and out of his own pocket. When he had quenched the flames of ruinous dissensions at home,

home, he contracted alliances with the neighbouring princes. He respected the elector of Brandenburg and the duke of Zell as if they had been his parents. And, to sum up all in a few words, all the asserters of liberty, and the patrons of the protestant religion, had their eyes at that time upon this young prince: nor was his uncle, the king of England, disaffected to him; being continually importuned by his subjects, the complaints of all good people, and the entreaties of his parliament, to put an end to the war against the Dutch, and to espouse the protestant interest according to the triple alliance.'

The prelate above mentioned is again brought upon the public stage by our author, in a manner likewise rather invidious. It is at the coronation of William and Mary.

' Dr. Burnet, on occasion of this solemnity, preached before their majesties concerning the duty of a good prince; and, at great length, exhorted the people to approve those of whom God had approved. Hence arose a new controversy: for the reasoning of Burnet supposed that actions were to be judged of only according to their events; and that whoever had success in any undertaking was certainly approved of by God, and therefore also ought to be approved of by the people! However, all men acknowledged, that nothing could have been more infatuated than the conduct of king James, especially in his leaving the kingdom, nor any thing more prudent than that of the prince of Orange. But how these things came to be considered as points of religion, no man can tell. The prince of Orange, who had full experience of both fortunes, ascribed much to divine providence; but yet, taught by the example of king James, he thought it not advisable to put much confidence in sermons, which even Dr. Burnet himself used to call the dregs of the pulpit!'

The following is the next most remarkable anecdote we meet with, and relates to the same person.

' The bishop of Salisbury was accused, in parliament, of a diminution at least of the king's title to the crown: for discouraging largely, in his pastoral letter, concerning the king's right, he had ascribed to king William a right of conquest by his sword. Whereupon Mr. Samuel Johnson, a man of quick parts, who had not only deserved well of the common cause, but was also remarkable for his keen manner of writing, confuted the bishop's pretended right as superfluous, as well by the laws as by the examples of former times, and treated the bishop himself with very smart language. When this affair came before the parliament, it was prosecuted with great heat. The bishop, in a long speech exhorted the lords to defend his cause, by a resolution of their house in his favour; saying, that he would also absolve them at the day of judgment. The bishop was a man who would rather have had them all ruined with him, than

fall himself alone. The marquis of Halifax, who was remarkable for his wit, answered to this effect: "I would be glad to know whether this right reverend prelate, whom we now so deservedly honour, will prove to be a bishop at the day of judgment? what place he will then appear in? and with what title, and by what authority he will pronounce the absolution?" To which he added somewhat concerning the robes, the mitre, the pastoral staff, and other episcopal ornaments, of which the bishops are stripped by death. This set the king himself, as well as the lords, into a fit of laughter. Soon after which, the bishop's book was censured and burnt, by order of parliament; whereat the bishop was so enraged, as if he had thought that vote enough to set the whole kingdom in a flame. But Mr. Johnson boasted what a phoenix was raised out of the ashes of this burnt book.

As Mr. Cunningham and this celebrated bishop were of the same side in politics, we cannot otherwise account for the apparent asperity of our author, in these extracts, than by supposing that some personal jealousy subsisted between him and Burnet. There seems no reason to imagine that it proceeded from any prejudice of a religious nature; as the historian, though, we believe, a presbyterian, reprobates, with just indignation, the infamous murder of bishop Sharp.

This historian, who was well acquainted with the courtiers of his time, gives a ludicrous account of their behaviour, at the accession of queen Anne.

'In the room of the late king, as had been formerly determined by the authority of the three estates of the realm at the Revolution, succeeded queen Anne, the younger daughter of king James II. on the eighth day of March, in the year of our Lord 1702, in the 39th year of her age. Nor were messengers wanting to give immediate intelligence to the new queen of the king's death. The courtiers, who had vented so many sighs and groans, and spent themselves, as it were, in sorrow, now all left the king's body, and the royal palace at Kensington, in the neighbourhood of the town, and made the best of their way, hastening in crowds, as fast as they could, out of breath, and full of joy, to the court at St. James's, to pay their compliments to their new mistress, and congratulate her on her accession to the throne, comforting themselves for the loss of the deceased king with the hopes of new advantages; for in courts, the state of affections changes as suddenly as the state of affairs.'

The subsequent anecdote, relative to the magnanimity of an English common soldier, deserves a place among our extracts.

'I think it neither foreign to the end, nor derogatory from the dignity of history, in this place to record the magnanimity of a certain English common soldier. When the confederates made

made an irruption, and had repulsed the enemy, this man took and carried monsieur de Croissy Colbert a prisoner into the town. Colbert being a major-general, and brother to the marquis de Torcy, was greatly taken with the clemency, humanity, and good behaviour of the soldier. He offered him two hundred louis d'ors, and a captain's post for life, if he would give him his liberty: "But," said the soldier, "perhaps I might accept that favour, if it were not attended with such dishonour." But he gave him to understand, that he had always been more desirous of reputation than riches: "How can I then (said he) as a captain, when once I have lost my reputation, be ever able to face my general, for whom I have fought so heartily many years?" In short, he freely protested, that he would much rather continue in the rank of a common soldier with reputation, than be raised to any other state or condition of life acquired by a base action unworthy of a soldier. And thus rejecting monsieur Colbert's proposals, he brought him prisoner along with him. When this was reported to prince Eugene, he made the soldier a present, and the duke of Marlborough gave him a captain's commission: so that the eminent fidelity and virtue of this soldier, by the grace of God, not given to all men alike, made amends for the vices and baseness of the commander before mentioned.'

The following extraordinary incident is related by our author, as a wonderful interposition of providence.

' This year a packet boat, returning from Holland into England, was so shaken by a tempest, that she sprung a leak, and was in the utmost extremity of danger in the midst of her course. When all the mariners and passengers were in the last distress, and the pumps had been long worked for carrying off the water, but all to little purpose; by a good providence the hole filled, and was stopped, seemingly of itself. This struck them all with wonder and astonishment. No sooner did they get safe into port than they examined the ship, to see what was the matter; and found a fish sticking in the very hole, which had been driven into it by the force of the tempest! Without this wonderful providence they must all have perished in a moment.'

The introduction of this extract suggests an observation, that the historian, or the translator, for him, should have marked, in the pages of the work, the dates of each transaction. The omission of this, which might easily have been supplied, proves sometimes inconvenient to the reader.

In the extracts made from this work, we have confined ourselves chiefly to anecdotes, not only because these are the most gratifying to curiosity, but because, in the detail of public transactions, Mr. Cunningham's account corresponds, in general, with the authority of other historians. His peculiarities, likewise, are best exemplified in those detached parts of the narrative.

Notes

Notes on the State of Virginia. Written by Thomas Jefferson. Illustrated with a Map, including the States of Virginia, Maryland, Delaware, and Pennsylvania. 8vo. 7s. in Boards. Stockdale.

WE have reviewed this work, in part, by detachment, as Mr. Jefferson proposes that the Americans should contend with the navies of Europe. But our's is not a contest: we agree with Mr. Jefferson as a civil and a natural historian: we do not greatly differ from him as a legislator; but, as politicians, we are widely separated. Let us not, however, open again those wounds which have bled enough: we hope the time is nearly approaching, when we shall differ no longer.

These Notes were originally written in 1781, corrected and enlarged in 1782, and printed about the same time. The copies were few, and intended only as presents; but another edition has lately appeared in French, with the restrictions which publications must yield to in that country. From the first English edition, many of those passages, which have been occasionally the subjects of our observations, have been taken; and we shall now examine it more particularly.

The title of the work is a modest one: the work itself consists of answers to the queries proposed to the author, by a foreigner of distinction, who resided in America about the year 1781. The questions are not always pointed with the precision of a philosopher, or limited with the accuracy of a real enquirer: the seventh query, for instance, is the following, 'a notice of all that can increase the progress of human knowledge?' Mr. Jefferson was probably at a loss what to say; but perhaps recollecting that no question related to the climate, availed himself of the advantage of his enquirer's comprehensive language, and added his remarks on the climate of Virginia in this part. We shall, therefore, mention the general subjects treated of, without noticing the terms of each question. These are

'Boundaries of Virginia—Rivers—Sea Ports—Mountains—Cascades—Productions, mineral, vegetable and animal—Climate—Population—Military Force—Marine Force—Aborigines—Counties and Towns—Constitution—Laws—Colleges, Buildings, and Roads—Proceedings as to Tories—Religion—Manners—Manufactures—Subjects of Commerce—Weights, Measures, and Money—Public Revenue and Expences—Histories, Memorials, and State Papers—Appendix, N^o I. II. and III.'

Of the boundaries of Virginia, its rivers, and its sea-ports, we can give no general account; and the extent of Mr. Jefferson's geographical details prevents us from transcribing any part.

Jefferson's Notes on the State of Virginia.

part. The first object of our attention must be his remarks on the mountains. The mountains of Virginia commence at about one hundred and fifty miles from the sea-coast, run in lines nearly parallel to it and to each other, till the country becoming narrow, they converge into a single ridge, which slopes into plain land, as it approaches the gulf of Mexico. The veins of lime, stone, and coal, the ranges of the smaller rivers, assume the same direction; but the larger rivers cross the mountains at right angles, and where they find no passage, form one by their accumulation. Mr. Jefferson describes the scenes produced by the ravages of this powerful agent, with spirit and feeling. The Alleghaney mountain alone is broken by no water-course.

‘The passage of the Patowmac through the Blue ridge is perhaps one of the most stupendous scenes in nature. You stand on a very high point of land. On your right comes up the Shenandoah, having ranged along the foot of the mountain an hundred miles to seek a vent. On your left approaches the Patowmac, in quest of a passage also. In the moment of their junction they rush together against the mountain, rend it asunder, and pass off to the sea. The first glance of this scene hurries our senses into the opinion, that this earth has been created in time, that the mountains were formed first, that the rivers began to flow afterwards, that in this place particularly they have been dammed up by the Blue ridge of mountains, and have formed an ocean which filled the whole valley; that continuing to rise they have at length broken over at this spot, and have torn the mountain down from its summit to its base. The piles of rock on each hand, but particularly the Shenandoah; the evident marks of their disrapture and avulsion from their beds by the most powerful agents of nature, corroborate the impression. But the distant finishing which nature has given to the picture is of a very different character. It is a true contrast to the fore-ground. It is as placid and delightful, as that is wild and tremendous. For the mountain being cloven asunder, she presents to your eye, through the cleft, a small catch of smooth blue horizon, at an infinite distance in the plain country, inviting you, as it were, from the riot and tumult roaring around, to pass through the breach and participate of the calm below. Here the eye ultimately composes itself; and that way too the road happens actually to lead. You cross the Patowmac above the junction, pass along its side through the base of the mountain for three miles, its terrible precipices hanging in fragments over you, and within about twenty miles reach Frederick-town, and the fine country round that. This scene is worth a voyage across the Atlantic.’

The Alleghaney is the vast spine of this extensive continent; it proudly towers over the other mountains, though the highest peak is supposed not to exceed 4000 feet, not one-fifth of the height

height of the mountains of South America. What has been supposed to be pumice floating on the Mississippi, our author thinks has been termed so without foundation, as all its streams have been traced to their sources, except the Missouri, without finding any volcanos. That the Missouri should furnish it, is, he supposes, improbable, as no volcano has been found at so great a distance from the sea. This may be true; but the extent of the lime-stone country, shows that water at least, if not sea-water, has, for a long series of ages, deluged this vast continent, or those parts nearest to us: besides, though volcanos are undoubtedly connected with the sea-coast, they have been discovered in South America, at a very great distance from it.

We have had occasion formerly to mention some of the cascades of Virginia, we shall now select Mr. Jefferson's description of the Blowing Cave.

'At the Panther gap, in the ridge which divides the waters of the Cow and the Calf pasture, is what is called the Blowing Cave. It is in the side of a hill, is of about 100 feet diameter, and emits constantly a current of air of such force, as to keep the weeds prostrate to the distance of twenty yards before it. This current is strongest in dry frosty weather, and in long spells of rain weakest. Regular inspirations and expirations of air, by caverns and fissures, have been probably enough accounted for, by supposing them combined with intermitting fountains; as they must of course inhale air while their reservoirs are emptying themselves, and again emit it while they are filling. But a constant issue of air, only varying in its force as the weather is drier or damper, will require a new hypothesis. There is another blowing cave in the Cumberland mountain, about a mile from where it crosses the Carolina line. All we know of this is, that it is not constant, and that a fountain of water issues from it.'

The natural bridge, and Mr. Jefferson's account of it, have been noticed in our last volume.

The subterraneous riches of America have not been accurately investigated. Coals abound in the new continent; but the quantity of wood necessary to be cleared prevents them from being generally sought after. Copper, lead, iron, with some silver, and a solitary instance of gold, comprise the metallic stores of Virginia. The toughness of the cast iron, from some of their furnaces, is a very valuable quality, and may lead us to improve our own manufactures: our cast iron, in consequence of some new improvements, has lost much of its brittleness.

From the Blue ridge, westwardly, the whole country seems to be founded on a rock of lime-stone, and its laminæ are, in

general, parallel to the axis of the earth, except where 'signs of convulsions' have appeared. On the Mississippi and the Ohio, and all the mountainous country between the eastern and the western waters, lime-stone occupies the vallies. These are not the only marks of actual convulsions. Near the eastern foot of the north mountain, the second in the rising ridge towards the Alleghaney, and nearer to it than to the sea, are petrified shells, of a kind very different from any that are now left by the tides on the shore. It is probable that the whole of this country has been raised from the bottom of the sea; but our author takes another view of it. He speaks of the opinion which derives this appearance from a general deluge; and seems pretty clearly to insinuate, that the deluge of the Old Testament was partial only. His argument is derived from the common calculation, that if all the air had been changed into water it could not have covered the mountains. He ought to have added, if all the mountains had been equally high at that time, which is neither proved, nor probable. There is in this instance an obvious *petitio principii*. Shells are found at a given height, to which, from the data, the waters of a deluge could not rise; if then it be supposed, that these shells were actually produced from water, it must not be assumed as a principle, that the mountains were always of the same height, especially since we know that many varieties occur on this occasion. Is it not very evident from facts, that the mountains of Switzerland have, at least many of them, been raised by a subterraneous agent? perhaps, if Mr. Jefferson reflects on these facts, he may think it comes nearer the revolution which raised the Andes, than the little movement, "which shuffled together the different parts of Calabria in our days." His calculation too of the weight of the air is of little consequence, if, as we always supposed was a rule, in the examination of historical facts, every part of the relation be taken together. We are informed, that the waters of the deluge were not derived only from the air, but from some convulsion of the earth; for we are expressly told, that the waters of the great deep were broken up. But, to return from this sceptical dispute, which somewhat resembles the pure Deism attributed by the marquis de Chatellux to the southern states.

The lithological stores of Virginia are stones of different kinds, fit for the chissel, flints, chalk, and clay: the other mineral productions are nitre, weak salt springs, and medicinal springs. The hottest spring raises the thermometer of Fahrenheit to 112°: their impregnations seem to be known imperfectly. Bituminous springs, whose vapour burns, are not uncommon. After these,

Mr.

Mr. Jefferson enumerates the plants and the animals of Virginia, Of the animals he gives no particular description, but he engages, with great success, in the dispute with M. de Buffon, on the size of the animals of the American continent. We mentioned the controversy, in our Review of the abbé Clavigero's History of Mexico. On the Ohio it is well known, that bones and grinders of an uncommon size have been found: the Indians attribute them to the mammoth or 'big buffalo,' a vast animal of the carnivorous kind, which they suppose still exists in the northern parts of America. We shall select the Indian description of this animal, when an enquiry was made concerning it, from a delegation of warriors of the Delaware tribe, during the late revolution.

' Their chief speaker immediately put himself into an attitude of oratory, and with a pomp suited to what he conceived the elevation of his subject, informed him that it was a tradition handed down from their fathers, " That in ancient times a herd of these tremendous animals came to the Big-bone licks, and began an universal destruction of the bear, deer, elks, buffaloes, and other animals, which have been created for the use of the Indians: that the Great Man above, looking down and seeing this, was so enraged that he seized his lightning, descended on the earth, seated himself on a neighbouring mountain, on a rock, of which his seat and the print of his feet are still to be seen, and hurled his bolts among them till the whole were slaughtered, except the big bull, who presenting his forehead to the shafts, shook them off as they fell; but missing one at length, it wounded him in the side; whereon, springing round, he bounded over the Ohio, over the Wabash, the Illinois, and finally over the great lakes, where he is living at this day."

Remains of this animal were found by Mr. Stanley, on the banks of a river to the west of the Missouri, and the inhabitants then described it, as still existing in the North. There can be no doubt but that a vast animal to whom such bones belonged, must once have existed, and the species probably migrated northward; but they must have soon perished for want of food, if they were really carnivorous, since the depredations of such monsters, if numerous, must soon have destroyed all the animals of America. Our author thinks it has never appeared lower down than 36° north latitude, and he is at some pains to show, that the fossil bones discovered on the Ohio could never have belonged to the elephant. Dr. Hunter was positive, from an examination of the teeth, that they must have been taken from an animal of a different form, and of different manners. On the controversy just mentioned we cannot, from its extent, enlarge: Jefferson has followed the count in all his arguments, and clearly demonstrated, from

real facts, that animated nature, on the new continent, is equally active, and the different productions as perfect as they are, in equal situations, in the old world. In the estimation of American genius we differ greatly from Mr. Jefferson; but America may boast, with justice, of a Franklin.

The birds peculiar to Virginia are next enumerated; and our author describes a variety of the Negro termed Albinos.

‘ To this catalogue of our indigenous animals, I will add a short account of an anomaly of nature, taking place sometimes in the race of Negroes brought from Africa, who, though black themselves, have, in rare instances, white children, called Albinos. I have known four of these myself, and have faithful accounts of three others. The circumstances in which all the individuals agree are these. They are of a pallid cadaverous white, untinged with red, without any coloured spots or seams; their hair of the same kind of white, short, coarse, and curled as is that of the Negro; all of them well formed, strong, healthy, perfect in their senses, except that of sight, and born of parents who had no mixture of white blood. Three of these Albinos were sisters, having two other full sisters, who were black. The youngest of the three was killed by lightning at twelve years of age. The eldest died at about twenty-seven years of age, in child-bed with her second child. The middle one is now alive in health, and has issue, as the eldest had, by a black man, which issue was black. They are uncommonly shrewd, quick in their apprehensions and in reply. Their eyes are in a perpetual tremulous vibration, very weak, and much affected by the sun: but they see better in the night than we do. They are of the property of colonel Skipwith, of Cumberland. The fourth is a Negro woman, whose parents came from Guinea, and had three other children, who were of their own colour. She is freckled, her eye-sight so weak that she is obliged to wear a bonnet in the summer; but it is better in the night than day. She had an Albino child by a black man. It died at the age of a few weeks. These were the property of colonel Carter of Albemarle. A sixth instance is a woman of the property of a Mr. Butler, near Petersburg. She is stout and robust, has issue a daughter, jet black, by a black man. I am not informed as to her eye-sight. The seventh instance is of a male belonging to a Mr. Lee, of Cumberland. His eyes are tremulous and weak. He is tall of stature, and now advanced in years. He is the only male of the Albinos which have come within my information. Whatever be the cause of the disease in the skin, or in its colouring matter, which produces this change, it seems more incident to the female than male sex. To these I may add the mention of a Negro man within my own knowledge, born black, and of black parents; on whose chin, when a boy, a white spot appeared. This continued to increase till he became a man, by

which time it had extended over his chin, lips, one cheek, the under jaw and neck on that side. It is of the Albino white, without any mixture of red, and has for several years been stationary. He is robust and healthy, and the change of colour was not accompanied with any sensible disease, either general or topical.

This description is extremely curious: we have mentioned it to add one other fact. We knew a female of this kind, born of black parents, married to an Englishman, whose children were mulattoes. The woman was exhibited as a show; but her children were the greatest curiosities. These facts fully ascertain, that this is a variety only of the Negro race.

Of the insects and fishes there is no particular account: it is pretty certain that the bee is not a native of the new world; yet, if we are not greatly mistaken, it was mentioned by some of the earliest settlers in Carolina. Perhaps some other insect was taken for it.

The range of the thermometer, at Williamsburg, from a mean of five years observations, was from $82^{\circ}\frac{1}{2}$ to $38^{\circ}\frac{1}{2}$. The mean heat of April, from an average of all the observations, was $59^{\circ}\frac{1}{4}$. The quantity of rain amounted to more than forty-seven inches. As the traveller recedes from the sea-coast, and ascends the mountains, it becomes colder; and, of course, the temperature is reversed, as he returns on the other side; but it is said to be warmer in the same latitude on that side, at an equal distance from the mountains, than on the former. The north-east is the predominant wind on the coast; and the north-west on the neighbouring mountains; but the north-east is now common at a greater distance from the sea than in former years. We have already remarked, that the variations of the barometer are trifling. The following facts are worth preserving.

' The access of frost in autumn, and its recess in the spring, do not seem to depend merely on the degree of cold; much less on the air's being at the freezing point. White frosts are frequent when the thermometer is at 47° , have killed young plants of Indian corn at 48° , and have been known at 54° . Black frost, and even ice, have been produced at $38\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$. which is $6\frac{1}{2}$ degrees above the freezing point. That other circumstances must be combined with the cold to produce frost, is evident from this also, that on the higher parts of mountains, where it is absolutely colder than in the plains on which they stand, frosts do not appear so early by a considerable space of time in autumn, and go off sooner in the spring, than in the plains. I have known frosts so severe as to kill the hickory trees round about Monticello, and yet not injure the tender fruit-blossoms

then in bloom on the top and higher parts of the mountain ; and in the course of forty years, during which it has been settled, there have been but two instances of a general loss of fruit on it : while, in the circumjacent country, the fruit has escaped but twice in the last seven years. The plants of tobacco, which grow from the roots of those which have been cut off in the summer, are frequently green here at Christmas. This privilege against the frost, is undoubtedly combined with the want of dew on the mountains. That the dew is very rare on the higher parts, I may say with certainty, from twelve years observations, having scarcely ever, during that time, seen an unequivocal proof of its existence on them at all during summer. Severe frosts in the depth of winter prove that the region of dews extends higher in that season than the tops of the mountains : but certainly, in the summer season, the vapours, by the time they attain that height, are become so attenuated as not to subside and form a dew when the sun retires.

‘ The weevil has not yet ascended the high mountains.’

It appears, however, that the temperature of different seasons is becoming more equable : the heats and colds are both more moderate.

In 1782, the number of inhabitants in Virginia was 567,614 ; and the author calculates, what will be the increase in ninety-five years, if population proceeds uniformly, which it probably will not do. An increase of population, in Mr. Jefferson's opinion, may be purchased too dear, by a promiscuous reception of emigrants. He tells us that their first step, when they became their own legislators, was to prohibit entirely the importation of slaves.

The whole number of the militia of Virginia, in 1781, amounted to 49,971. The marine, at the time these Notes were written, was nothing : it is not at present, we believe, very considerable.

The different tribes of Indians are described particularly. It is well known that their numbers are greatly diminished, chiefly from the valuable importations which they have received by means of the Europeans. Many different tracts of land were, we find, actually purchased, though it is commonly supposed that all our territories are obtained by encroachments. But the nature of the commodities given in exchange scarcely lessens the crime in the code of humanity. There are no Indian monuments : the barrow which Mr. Jefferson opened contained a vast number of bones of different sizes, belonging to persons of very different ages. There were no marks of violence on any ; and they appeared to have been gradually accumulated in this spot, from different sources, a custom not uncommon among the Indians, and it seemed to be

be a place well known for such accumulations. The origin of the native Americans he traces, like all other system-builders, from the eastern coasts of Asia; but adds no new argument in support of this ill-grounded hypothesis.

Mr. Jefferson next enumerates the different counties and towns, and describes the constitution of Virginia; but neither of these articles will admit of an analysis or an extract. On the subject of the laws we shall not enlarge, because we apprehend some changes have taken place since these Notes were written. The outline of the first alteration, as it is not extensive, we shall transcribe.

• The following are the most remarkable alterations proposed:

• To change the rules of descent, so as that the lands of any person dying intestate shall be divisible equally among all his children, or other representatives, in equal degree.

• To make slaves distributable among the next of kin, as other movables.

• To have all public expences, whether of the general treasury, or of a parish or county, (as for the maintenance of the poor, building bridges, court-houses, &c.) supplied by assessments on the citizens, in proportion to their property.

• To hire undertakers for keeping the public roads in repair, and indemnify individuals through whose lands new roads shall be opened.

• To define, with precision, the rules whereby aliens should become citizens, and citizens make themselves aliens.

• To establish religious freedom on the broadest bottom.

• To emancipate all slaves born after passing the act.

The next subject of enquiry relates to the colleges and public buildings. These are described at some length; and, in answer to the following quære, is a defence of the measures of congress with respect to the Tories. The subsequent enquiry relates to religion, in which Mr. Jefferson argues for a liberal and extensive toleration. We have more than once suggested our suspicions of the source of this great liberality, which the tenor of this volume does not contribute to remove. Our author's observations on the manners of the Virginians, offer nothing very satisfactory.

The manufactures and commerce of Virginia form a more extensive enquiry, from which many interesting particulars might be selected, if the length of our article did not remind us of the necessity of coming soon to a conclusion. Mr. Jefferson adopts the (erroneous as we suspect) opinion of the refined speculators, that agriculture is the chief object of a well-regulated and virtuous state; and that it is more advantageous to support manufacturers in a neighbouring kingdom,

than to bring them home. The value of the exports from Virginia, before the war, amounted to 607,142 guineas. Training the horse, raising cotton and corn, will, he thinks, form an useful substitution for the growth of a plant which impoverishes the ground so much as tobacco.

On the weights, measures, and currency, the author says little; the value of the dollar is now fixed at six shillings. Of the revenue and the expences he gives a particular account; and, in this part of the work, he expresses his opinion that America may, with a limited naval force, cope with the maritime powers of Europe, and conquer them by detachment, since the European states cannot spare a great force on coasts so distant, and where they have no harbours in which they can refit. This is a scheme, plausible in theory, but we think of little real force. Since the Notes were written, great fleets have appeared on the coasts of America; and even their great and good ally has taken the most effectual step to prevent them from having any fleet at all.

The history contains an account of the first settling this colony, and a pretty complete description of all the works which have been published relating to it.

To these Notes are added some remarks by Mr. Charles Thompson, secretary to congress. They show that he possesses extensive information, and a clear, as well as comprehensive mind: they illustrate, in many particulars, the remarks of Mr. Jefferson. After these additional notes, are added a draught for a fundamental constitution for the common-wealth of Virginia, intended to be proposed to a convention which it was expected would be called; and an act for establishing religious freedom, which passed in the assembly of Virginia, in the beginning of the year 1786.

We have given an ample account of this volume, for many reasons; it is not one of the least, that we respect the author as an accurate enquirer, and a well-informed philosopher. America, as we have already said, is new ground for the natural historian; and we follow, with eagerness, every one who appears willing to conduct us. Even though we occasionally sink in bogs, or are entangled in briars, we shall not give up the pursuit.

FOREIGN LITERARY INTELLIGENCE.

(Continued from p. 306.)

BEFORE we engaged in giving an account of the Memoirs of the Society of Agriculture, at Paris, we purposed to have examined their last Prospectus; and though we have been, in some

some degree, anticipated in this attempt, by the newspapers, yet it is essential to the consistency of our own Journal, that some notice should be taken of it; besides, this is the only return that we can make to our respectable correspondent, from whom we received it. As the subject is not wholly new to the public, we shall be short in our account; and, instead of regretting the anticipation, in a moment of urgent necessity, like the present, we shall be grateful for it.

The Society decided on the merits of the Dissertations on the following question, at their last session, held the 19th of June last.—“What are the species of artificial grasses to be cultivated with the greatest advantages in the generality of Paris? And what is the best mode of culture?” Though one received the prize, many dissertations were spoken of with respect; and the Society requests that the authors would no longer conceal themselves, and that their methods of cultivation may be published. Several prizes were also distributed to agriculturists, who had distinguished themselves by methods little known. Six are particularly mentioned. The society had proposed, for the subject of a prize, an enquiry into those plants, or shrubs, which grow naturally in the generality of Paris, which might furnish flax for cloth, or a fibrous substance proper for cords. One Dissertation seemed only worthy of the prize; but, as it did not completely answer the views of the Society, they have offered a reward to the author, if he will discover his name; and have changed the state of the question. It is now, To determine, by a series of comparative experiments, the best methods to be pursued, to obtain the fibrous parts of vegetables, and ascertain their several qualities. It is requested, that the candidates will apply their methods to plants cultivated in large quantities; that they prepare the fibrous parts in a manner proper for spinning; and that the advantages of each plant be properly appreciated, by comparison, with hemp or flax.—The subject of an extraordinary prize was, to find a stuff more durable and warm, less dear, and less easily penetrated by rain, than the stuff commonly employed for the cloaths of the country people. This question was not properly answered, and it is now limited to the following:—“To point out the different kinds of stuffs employed in the provinces of France, or in other countries, particularly mountainous ones, by shepherds and travellers, to guard against violent and long continued rain. The choice and preparation of the materials; the process of making and stiffening the stuffs; the price at which they can be afforded, and specimens of the stuffs, are to accompany the memoirs.

One of the new questions is,—“What are the plants which can be cultivated to the greatest advantage in lands which are never suffered to lie fallow? And in what order should they follow each other?” The observations may be applied to one farm only; but its nature must be carefully pointed out. Another is, “To render more perfect, the artificial methods of hatching chickens,

ens, as well as of rearing them; and to point out the best regulations to be followed, in an extensive establishment of this kind."—At the request of a provincial Society, who have experienced the great injury which dodder does to the lucerne, the Society have published a reward for the best methods of destroying it.—Other questions now first proposed, are, "What are the most certain methods of obtaining new varieties of useful vegetables in rural and domestic œconomy? And what are the best methods of naturalizing different vegetables, to any country? What are the vegetables, either indigenous, or easily cultivated in France, that will furnish a blue colour; and what are the most exact methods of determining the quantity of this substance in the plants which furnish it?—As the Society are acquainted with the woad, they request, that nothing may be said on it, unless some new and more advantageous processes in managing it are suggested. Specimens, and proper certificates, must be subjoined. Any new or improved instrument, in the ensuing year, will be rewarded, if its utility, in rural or domestic œconomy, be ascertained. A reward will also be bestowed on any work, either on morality or rural and domestic œconomy, best adapted to the understandings of the country people.—Different rewards will also be given to those farmers who shall distinguish themselves, in the course of the next year, by any new or uncommon process. Memoirs are to be addressed to M. Bruffonet, perpetual secretary to the society, Rue des Blancs Manteaux, No. 57.

A new society, and one of very great utility, has lately been established on the continent; it is styled, the Society for working Mines; and while every adventurer, in this branch, is exposed to deceit and treachery, it is of some consequence to collect the intelligence on this subject, into one view, to have the information of different countries in one mass, and to possess, at least, one body of men from whom proper information may be expected. The great centre of all intelligence, is to be at Zelterfield, in Hartz (Brunswick); but the Society is fixed to no one spot. Among the directors we read, with pleasure, the names of Baron Born, Baron Dietrich, M. Pallas, M. Charpentier, M. Prebra, and M. Henkel, with other distinguished philosophers. Their office is to propose the members; to take care that the views of the Society are pursued, in the different countries where they reside; to answer the requests of the members of their country, who are qualified to make them; in case of the death of a director, to chuse another: and the majority is to determine where the archives, and the strong box, is to be placed.

The institution arose from the accidental meeting of several mineralogists at Schmitt, in Hungary, who were collected, in order to examine a new method of amalgamation. Struck with the shackles imposed on mineralogy by monopolizers of new and useful processes, they thought no method so effectual to break them,

them, as forming a Society, whose common labours were directed to fix mining on its surest principles; and whose memoirs, spread over all Europe, might offer to every adventurer the result of the researches, of which they are the object. By this means they supposed, that there would be a mass of information collected; the interests of individuals would be lost in the general interest; and the one would materially assist the other. Imposture and quackery would, by the same means, be banished from a science, which must be improved by philosophy and experience; and the Society, they supposed, would find, in the confidence which they inspired, the reward and the encouragement of their labours. They design, that the memoirs which they publish shall be short and clear; truth must be their basis, and every idle discussion, every foreign digression, must be banished; politics and finance must be avoided, though the dissertations may seem to lead towards them; and they oblige themselves to oppose the affectation of brilliancies, and the ostentation of empty speculation, when compared with plain, simple, and useful facts.

The *object* of the Society is physical geography; mineralogy founded on chemistry; the management of ore, in the different operations which it undergoes; subterraneous geometry; the history of mining; founderies, and the processes for the extraction of metals from the ores, either by fusion or amalgamation, in every instance applied to practice. The *end* of this institution is to collect, in the most extensive sense, every thing that can assist the operations of the miner, and to communicate it to the different members, that they may employ it for the public good, in their respective countries. Each member must consider himself as bound to send to the Society every thing which will contribute to the end of its institution; to point out, with precision, the several facts and observations; to communicate every experiment which occurs, even the unsuccessful ones, if the relation may seem to be advantageous to the public; to communicate to the Society their examination of schemes, and their opinions on questions proposed by it; and to pay annually, two ducats (about 18s. 6d.) to the Direction, every Easter. The Society, on the other hand, is bound to publish every novelty, that shall be communicated to it; to communicate to each member, at the member's expence, the memoirs, designs, models, productions, and every thing connected with the institution; to answer all the necessary demands made, relating in any respect to mining; and to give its opinion on every plan, or project, communicated through the medium of an honorary member.

We have given the account of this Society somewhat at large; but we must omit several less important particulars, especially the names of the several members. We can only add, that any observations on the plan may be addressed to M. F. W. H. de Trebra, at Hartz, the present possessor of the archives of the Society; and from him farther particulars may be known. The
memoirs

memoirs are to be published in German; and the answers to the different questions will be forwarded in the same language: but dissertations may be written, either in English, French, Italian, or German; and the author may, if he pleases, be concealed.

We have proceeded too far in our miscellaneous information to engage in any continued subject, in the present Number, and our only apology is, that the details, which have engaged our attention, could not with propriety be deferred; to many, they may be highly interesting and satisfactory.—We shall next proceed to a subject hitherto little known in this kingdom, viz. the fire-works made by means of inflammable air; which, if our accounts be not exaggerated, are extremely curious and entertaining: that they are not exaggerated will appear probable, when we mention that they are extracted from the reports of the commissioners appointed by the Royal Society to examine the methods which the operator employed; but we must still regret that they are imperfect. The commissioners employed were Mess. le Roy, Brissot, Lavoisier, Monge, Berthollet, and de Fourcroy; their report was read the 4th of July last; but it was not transmitted to us till two months after that time.

M. Diller, who seems to be the inventor of this spectacle, is a Dutch physician, the pupil of the late M. Allamant. His contrivances show him to be intimately acquainted with different inflammable airs, and dextrous in managing them. His art is a new one; and his apparatus, though apparently complicated, is simple in its action; the most inflammable materials burn without violence, without danger, and without any suffocating fumes. The airs which he employs are of three different kinds, distinguished by their colours, into the white, the blue, and the green air. They may, very probably, in future, be farther diversified. His materials are kept secret; but we know that neither kind of air is what we have distinguished by the term of inflammable air, for they have no peculiar smell, and they do not detonate with atmospheric air. These properties, which are incontestably established, show their absolute safety, and contribute to the pleasure of the spectacle. When these airs are burned at the end of the same funnel, the flames are bright and uniform, and they admit of different appearances, as the bladders which contain them are pressed with greater or less force. No iron is used in their preparation: and the difference of colour is said to depend on the mixture of the different gasses; and the mixture of common air serves only to lessen the brilliancy of the flames: that of the white air is spoken of with many marks of admiration, and is said to be well adapted for light-houses.

It would be uninteresting to follow the description of the different reservoirs, and their communications, in the report of the commissioners; it would give us more pleasure to be able to describe the means of producing the different effects; but this part is left in much obscurity, and would not, perhaps, admit of a
minute

minute description. The effects, in general, are derived from the form and direction, the number, and the diameters of tubes, at the end of which the air is inflamed. The movements are either those of a jet of fire, resembling the artificial fons, or depending on the mechanism, more or less simple, according to the different effects:—a dragon, for instance, is seen pursuing a serpent through a very irregular curve, and each, at times, assumes different appearances, by particular movements communicated to different parts of the body. The whole is said to form a very pleasing spectacle; and the boldness and address with which M. Diller executes the most difficult and complicated motions, appears to be no less admirable than their effects. With the simple apparatus of two or three bladders, furnished with tubes, and valves of different kinds, and filled with his different airs, by a pressure of greater or less force, he forms successively, fons, stars, triangles, crosses of Malta, of a light and deep blue, of a brilliant white, or a tender green:—these colours are often mixed, and shaded regularly, from the colours of which the ground is formed. Another part of the spectacle consists in the play of large pieces, placed vertically, where a great number of tubes pour out light flames, differently coloured. These, Mr. Diller directs by some mechanism, and they present figures of plants, animals, or any other body, whose ornaments may be pleasing. By the assistance of communicating tubes, they are presented in parts: the trunk of a tree is adorned, successively, with leaves, with flowers, and with fruits;—animals run away, while others pursue;—in short, the eye is very agreeably entertained through all the changes of which his apparatus is susceptible.

We would take the earliest opportunity of remarking, and it will fill up this miscellaneous sketch, that, while we are changing the chemical names of various substances, and while our royal college, if we can trust to their specimen, is preparing to puzzle their brethren, with terms formed on no analogy, either of the medical or chemical properties of preparations, the French themselves are not consistent in their new appellations. The changes proposed to be introduced in the names of our medicines are received with disapprobation by practitioners in general, and are not agreeable to chemists, since it is a language as distant from M. Morveau's, as his was from the language of the former chemists. We have taken this opportunity of recommending a complete revision of the terms, in the new Pharmacopœia, because we are more willing to prevent than to detect faults, and because an unpublished specimen cannot be properly the subject of our animadversions, in the usual way. M. Morveau's first changes in the chemical language were published in May, 1782, in the *Journal de Physique*, and afterwards printed in the new French Encyclopedia.—Within a month, the nomenclature is again changed, and the changes are published under the joint authority of Mess. Morveau, Berthollet, Lavoisier, and de Fourcroy. The former

former language we received with pleasure; for it was expressive of the ingredients, which made the most important part of the composition, and must remain equally proper, in spite of the changes in theory. The present depends much on the form which the science has lately assumed, on a garb which may be soon changed; on theories, perhaps unfounded, and certainly disputed. On this account, we shall not engage in explaining it. If we find that our readers are anxious for it, the work, in which it is proposed shall be reviewed among the foreign publications. We wish only, our own editors to be cautious, lest, like unsuccessful imitators, they are subjected to the ridicule of foreigners, inferior to our college in almost every other professional department.

*Description generale de la Chine, &c. continued from Vol. LXIII.
page 298.*

IT is not true that China is governed by the laws only; acts of tyranny have been common there in all ages. That the emperor of China supposes himself the father of a large family, is a mere figure of speech; the same may be said of other arbitrary monarchs, who often chastise their children unmercifully and unjustly. Supreme power centers in him, and him alone; the lives of his subjects are in his hands; yet, one happy consequence of this detestable despotism is, that no sentence of death can be executed till revised and confirmed by him.

Other suits are subject to his revision; no judgment is legal, till he has approved it; and then it becomes immediately effective. The emperor bestows all offices, appoints viceroys and governors; changes or deposes them at pleasure; names which of his sons, or which of his subjects, shall be his successor; and, if he thinks fit, revokes that choice. The princes of the blood are respected by the Chinese; but the emperor can forbid his children to assume the title; and those who are permitted to enjoy it have neither power nor influence. They have revenues appointed them, palaces, officers, and a court, yet have less authority than the lowest of the mandarines.

There are but two classes of people in China, those who are ennobled, and those who are not; nor is nobility hereditary, it is bestowed or continued by the emperor; the son has no right to aspire to the office which his father held; he must first prove himself capable of it. The nobles are the mandarines, of letters and of arms; and the latter very rarely enjoy so distinguished a rank as the former. Hence the Chinese are bad soldiers; and, for this reason, were easily subdued by the Tartars. Yet, what perhaps is more singular, the latter have attempted no change in the constitution; nor have they rendered the art, which taught them to conquer, more honourable. As morality and knowledge are the basis of Chinese politics, the literati have obtained this pre-eminence.

The

The troops of the empire exceed seven hundred thousand men, well clothed, armed, and paid ; but what we have said proves they are kept rather for ostentation than use. The arms of the cavalry, offensive and defensive, are a helmet, a cuirass, a lance, and a large sabre. The foot have pikes and sabres, some of them have muskets, and others bows and arrows. The least negligence in cleaning their arms is immediately punished ; by the bastinado, if the culprit be a Chinese ; or by flogging, if a Tartar.

There is a tribunal appointed over each part of administration ; and a censor over each tribunal, who is purely passive, deciding on nothing, but observing all, is present at every assembly, examines every act, communicates nothing which he finds wrong, to the tribunal, but immediately informs the emperor ; and does the like concerning whatever faults the Mandarines commit, whether of a public or a private nature. Nay, he sometimes reprehends the emperor himself. These rigid censors are feared, and respected, by all ranks ; nor can they be deprived of their office, unless by raising them to the highest employments ; and this security gives them the fortitude they frequently display. These same censors, likewise, form themselves into a tribunal of inspection over the whole empire ; they remonstrate to the emperor, as the interest of himself, or the public, shall direct ; and they generally render their functions most respectable, and most important, by firmness, void of fear, and probity, which no bribery can corrupt. The emperor, in consequence of his unbounded power, can deprive them of life ; but many have suffered death, rather than countenance falsehood or injustice : nor must one alone be taken off, for the last would not fail to follow the example of his predecessors. The annals of the world afford no example of a similar tribunal, though it is one most necessary to all nations. The privileges of the censor, however, do not permit him to approach his sovereign with terms of disrespect ; nor to inform the public of what he finds wrong in his conduct ; he would be punished with death, should he even communicate it to one of his colleagues ; or should the least rude, or improper expression, escape him in his remonstrances.

Their tribunal of history is not less singular, which is composed of the men most renowned for learning and genius, throughout the empire, who, each, before admitted a member, must undergo the most rigorous examination. To them the education of the heir apparent, and the general history of the empire, are confided ; and the latter function makes them dreaded by the emperor himself : they have proved, that he might oppress, but could not seduce them, and that these oppressions would be consigned to history.

The civil laws of the Chinese are chiefly moral precepts, the basis of which, and of the government, is filial piety. Each mandarine, whether governor of a province, or a city, is obliged to teach these laws or maxims, twice a month, to the people.

The laws concerning marriage are very numerous. A Chinese can marry only one wife, but may have many concubines, who are under the wife's subjection, and whose children are reputed her's. Divorce is allowed, in certain cases; such as adultery, antipathy, absolute disobedience, barrenness, and hereditary diseases.

The slowness of criminal prosecutions, in China, becomes the safeguard of the accused. Each cause is examined by five or six tribunals, which inspect the conduct, not only of the supposed culprit, but of the prosecutors and witnesses. The bastinado is the smallest punishment, and this is administered according to the crime; the number of strokes never less than twenty. No idea of infamy is annexed to this chastisement, which is called paternal, and which the emperor sometimes bestows on his courtiers, though he afterwards receives them with the same degree of favour as before.

Homicide is punished by death. The man who, in accidental quarrel, kills his adversary, is strangled without remission. The gallows is unknown to China; beheading is held the most infamous of punishments, and inflicted only on those who have committed murder, or some crime of like enormity. As no sentence is executed till confirmed by the emperor, a fair copy of the cause is presented him, from which a number of other copies are made, in the Chinese and Tartar languages, and the emperor submits them to an equal number of Chinese and Tartar doctors. Before he signs the sentence, he prepares himself by fasting, and deems those the happiest years of his reign in which he has signed the fewest.

The general police of the empire is carefully maintained; and all orders of men, and every species of merchandize, are scrupulously protected, in their removal from place to place. All towns, on the great roads, have offices of correspondence with each other, at which goods are entered. Should any merchant want four hundred porters, there he may find them. The director sees the goods weighed himself; and the price of carriage is five-pence a-day for each hundred weight. The merchant has no farther care concerning the safety of his effects, which are faithfully remitted to him at the appointed place.

The Chinese taxes are most of them paid in kind, and consumed in their respective provinces, by the mandarines, officers, soldiers, and pensioners, whom the emperor thus feeds and clothes: the remainder is sold for his profit. The only impost, in money, arises from the sale of salt, and the duties of the customs. The artizan pays nothing, nor the merchant any thing more than these first duties; thus, taxation chiefly rests on agriculture, and the utmost precautions are taken that it shall not be overburthened. The emperor's revenues are equivalent to about forty-seven millions sterling.

Filial piety is one of the main-springs of Chinese government; nor is it, as elsewhere, mere decorum, or even the duties of nature,

ture, but of religion, severely observed. Its object is, that the subjects of the sovereign should be his children, and he the common father. He was anciently called *the father and the mother of the empire*. A son enjoys no possessions during his father's life; is on no occasion allowed to sit on the same mat; never goes out without first informing him, nor returns without coming to salute him; must always follow, when he attends his father abroad, and keep behind him, at the distance of a pace. Should he attempt his father's or mother's life, any servant is authorized in killing the parricide; the house is razed, and the place on which it stood made a common drain. Confucius was asked, how a son should behave to the enemy of his father? and replied, "he ought to clothe himself in sackcloth, and make his sword his pillow." The emperor himself, like the meanest of his subjects, is obliged to pay filial respect to his mother, when she happens to survive her husband.

The doctrines of the Chinese concerning the existence of the attributes of a God, have existed, unaltered, for a long succession of ages. Sects and superstitions have, at length, arisen; and it appears, that the nobility, and literati, have attached themselves to what is called Natural Religion. Lao-tsai, the Epicurus of China, lived six hundred and three years before the Christian æra; and his doctrines were refined Atheism. His disciples removed the veil, and were grossly impious. The passive state, and perfect calm, to which they aspired, being incessantly troubled by the fear of death, they affirmed it was possible to find a liquor which should render man immortal. This supposition led them to the study of chemistry, alchemy, and, at last, to all the madness of magic. The hope of eternal life gained them many sectaries, especially among the women, the rich, and the great; and the error was farther propagated by the credulity of the emperors themselves, so that the court soon swarmed with those false doctors, whom they dignified with the title of *celestial*.

The most superstitious sects of the vulgar are those of Tao-sai, and the god Fo. The idols of the people are very numerous, and treated by them with great familiarity; and, if their prayers are not heard, with great indignity.

The bonzes, or priests of Fo, are debauched hypocrites, and the literati are educated in habitual contempt of them.

The ceremonious politeness of the Chinese is almost as great in the village as in the court, and is almost equally insincere. Suspicion becomes the virtue of necessity, and is even authorised by custom and by law. The buyer must use his own weights and scales; for the seller holds it a duty to give as little as he can, and to obtain all he can. If, say they, a man is cheated, it is the buyer who cheats himself. The largest fairs of Europe present but a feeble picture of that incredible multitude of buyers and sellers, who incessantly crowd the great cities of China; so that, it may be said, the one half is employed in deceiving the other. The Chinese traders exercise their insatiable rapacity

chiefly on foreigners; among a thousand examples, take the following. An English captain having agreed with a merchant of Canton for a great number of bales of silk, came, with his interpreter, to examine if they were such as the conditions expressed. He found the first perfectly good, but all the rest damaged, and totally spoiled. The captain being exceedingly angry, reproached the Chinese in the harshest terms for his knavery; to which he listened with the utmost composure, and, at last, replied, "Blame your own knave of an interpreter, sir; he protested and assured me, you would examine none of the bales but the first."

We have been necessarily obliged to omit a thousand curious particulars, and conclude with observing, that this, as a general account of the Chinese nation, seems to be the best we remember to have seen. The author has done literature a real service; his work is a selection from the most authentic memoirs of the missionaries, made with great circumspection; in one volume (a large one, we allow) he has collected those facts which seem best deserving notice, concerning the empire of China, than which, perhaps, there is not one on earth that more deserves to be perfectly known.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

P O L I T I C A L.

The National Debt productive of national Prosperity. 8vo. 1s. 6d.
Johnfon.

THE basis of this author's argument is a distinction which he makes between the domestic and the foreign creditors of government: the money owing to the latter of whom only he considers as justly entitled to the denomination of the *national debt*; which, by a general computation, he estimates at forty millions, while the domestic debt may amount to five times that sum. From examining the state of the nation before the debt existed, and comparing it with that to which it has now attained, he thinks its present situation affords a strong argument against the prevailing opinion, that the public debt is an *evil* proportioned to its magnitude; though it may not perhaps be admitted, from the increased prosperity of the nation alone, that the improvement is to be ascribed to the operation of this debt. We agree with this author in regard to the operation of taxes, that as the money expended by government principally circulates at home, both in peace and war, being paid to those who furnish arms, clothing, &c. or what are in any other way employed under government, the augmented expenditure flows in fresh channels, and becomes

becomes the property of new owners. Hence, by degrees, as the demands of government increase, the circulation of property becomes more general, and the industrious part of the nation possess themselves of the floating wealth, in exchange for the produce of labour. The property of the nation becoming in this manner more *divided*, we think with the author, that it experiences likewise a considerable *increase*; if the abundance of the necessaries and conveniences of life, procured by industry, may be said to constitute national wealth. Taxes, therefore, have undoubtedly a tendency to increase the property of the nation, by dividing it amongst the community into smaller shares, and, from that circumstance, increasing its circulation. But it ought to be remembered, that it is only among the industrious part of the nation that taxes can operate towards the increase of wealth; and that to those who, from any cause, may happen to be placed without the verge of the pecuniary circulation above mentioned, the augmentation of the public debt is a real evil. The author's principle, however, would be less affected by this consideration, should it be admitted, that the diffusion of industry would keep pace with the extension of the public debt; and above all, should such plans of internal policy be devised, as might give both encouragement and operation to industry, in those classes of the people amongst which it is at present most defective. On the whole, we think that there is much political sagacity in the arguments, however apparently paradoxical, of this ingenious author, when admitted in a limited extent; for as the industry of no country can ever be increased *ad infinitum*, the increase of the public debt, beyond a certain standard, would produce a result entirely the reverse of the proposition which he maintains.

One argument suggested by this author is particularly worthy of attention; and that is, that no injury can possibly happen to our foreign trade, from the operation of the domestic debt, though much greater than at present; an effect, from which the most fatal consequences, to commerce, have been apprehended. The author urges, in refutation of this opinion, which he considers as visionary, that it is the usual practice of the merchant to charge the profit of the voyage on the manufactures exported; which, though they should be at prime cost, yet the merchant may much more than indemnify himself by the goods which he imports in return. Supposing this assertion to be well founded, we should have no hesitation to agree with the author in opinion, that the public debt may yet admit of a considerable increase, without being attended with any ruinous influence on commerce.

Prospects on the Rubicon: or, an Investigation into the Causes and Consequences of the Politics to be agitated at the Meeting of Parliament. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Debrett.

The present pamphlet owes its title to an expression used in the British parliament respecting the American war, alluding to Julius Caesar having passed the Rubicon, and perverted by this author into a figurative appellation of war in general. But we cavil not about names; the intrinsic merits or demerits of the production are only the object of our regard; and these we shall candidly endeavour to ascertain, from a few observations on the principal parts of the subject.

'Surely, says the author, there is some tender cord, tuned by the hand of its Creator, that still struggles to emit in the hearing of the soul a note of sorrowing sympathy. Let it then be heard, and let man learn to feel, that the true greatness of a nation is founded on principles of humanity; and that to avoid a war when her own existence is not endangered, and wherein the happiness of man must be wantonly sacrificed, is a higher principle of true honour than madly to engage in it.'

According to the principles of this author, the rights, the honour, the interests, and the happiness of a nation, ought all to be sacrificed to the pleasure or usurpation of an enemy, when her own existence is not endangered. But historical records authorise us to affirm, that a nation which could be so extremely passive, would soon become the victim of its own pusillanimity; though it must be confessed, that any conduct must be more eligible than that of *madly* engaging in war. It deserves to be remarked, that, from the terms in which the author has expressed himself in this quotation, his argument destroys itself; and the observation which he meant as a censure becomes, in fact, an encomium on the conduct of the present ministers.

The independency of Holland was apparently the original object of the late naval preparations; nor does this author assign any other cause; and it is such a motive as must fully justify them in the eyes of every rational and impartial enquirer. To prevent the United Provinces from being subjected to the influence of France, was so far from being chargeable with the reproach of *madly* engaging in war, that, in reality, nothing could afford a stronger proof of political madness than an indifference to an event so important to the interests, not to say the honour, of Great Britain. But, as this author will not allow these considerations to be sufficiently cogent for engaging in war, we shall add, upon his own principle, the existence of this country; the liberties of which must have become actually endangered by so great an accession of influence and power to the house of Bourbon.

'With regard to Holland, says the author, a man must know very little of the matter, not to know, that there exists a stronger

stronger principle of rivalry between Holland and England in point of commerce, than prevails between England and France in point of power: and, therefore, whenever a stadtholder of Holland shall see it his interest to unite with the principle of his country, and act in concert with the sentiments of the very people who pay him for his services, the means now taken by England to render him formidable, will operate contrary to the political expectations of the present day.

What political revolutions may happen in the progress of time, it is impossible for the greatest degree of human sagacity to determine. But there is a moral certainty, that while the real interests of Holland remain the same as at present, the *principle* of the country will always be less inimical to the power of Great Britain than of France.

‘Nothing but necessity, says this author, should have operated with England to appear openly in a case that must put the stadtholder on still worse terms with his countrymen. Had France made any disposition for war, had she armed, had she made any one hostile preparation, there might then have been some pretence for England taking a step, that cannot fail to expose to the world that the suspicions of the Hollanders against the stadtholder were well founded, and that their cause was just, however unsuccessful has been the event.’

Before the re-establishment of the stadtholder, did not such a necessity as that just now mentioned appear universally evident? Did not France make, and even avow, a disposition for war? Did she not arm, did she not make hostile preparations? Is the author ignorant, or would he misrepresent, public facts, of the utmost importance to his argument?

The author has already said, that, in some future period, the means now taken by England to render the stadtholder formidable, will operate contrary to the political expectations of the present day. But he afterwards tells us, that the national conduct of Holland will always be neutral. Admitting this supposition to be just, however uncertain, and that her neutrality is the most favourable event which can result to Great Britain; we would ask this author, whether such a neutrality could have been reasonably expected, had her government continued to be directed by the influence of France, which would inevitably have been the case, without the re-establishment of the stadtholder?

We cannot avoid observing, as a specimen of this author’s *consistency*, that, though the greater part of the pamphlet is employed in endeavouring to evince, that neither France nor Great Britain is in a condition for going to war, and that the disposition of the former is peculiarly pacific, he afterwards affirms, in p. 55, that “France is, in her turn, getting into a temper for war.”

A few unimportant facts excepted, but those generally misrepresented, this pamphlet consists of crude, hypothetical speculations.

culations, and extravagant inferences not only destitute of foundation, but repugnant to rational principles. The author seriously maintains, that the hostile declaration of France, in her rescript, was a positive proof of her pacific disposition; that the expence of Great Britain, in the next war in which she is engaged (on whatever account), will be at least two hundred millions; and in the succeeding war, four hundred millions!

An Appeal to the People of England and Scotland, in Behalf of Warren Hastings, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Debrett.

The author of this Appeal, in warm energetic language, in words that flow from the heart, vindicates the conduct of Mr. Hastings, and hurls reproaches, with equal eagerness, on his opponents. The Appeal is indeed written with great spirit and ability; but it would be highly indecent at this time to engage in any examination of Mr. Hastings' merits. Whether he is the preserver of India, or a wanton and cruel tyrant, will be decided in the highest court of judicature in the kingdom, perhaps in the world.

An Account of all the Manors, Messuages, Lands, Tenements, and Hereditaments in the different Counties of England and Wales, held by Lease from the Crown. 4to. 12s. 6d. Hooper.

This is very probably a correct account—it cannot properly be reviewed, since the observations that would arise must necessarily be more of a political than a literary kind;—of a political nature the most delicate, and perhaps the most dangerous.

A Scheme to pay off, in a few Years, the National Debt, by a Repeal of the Marriage Act. 8vo. 1s. Dilly.

The proposal of this waggish politician is, that, in the marriage ceremony, instead of the clause, *until death doth us part*, shall be inserted, *for the term of one, two, three, four, or five years*, as the parties may agree; and that, for every registering, a certain tax shall be paid to the government. Could the chancellor of the Exchequer in Utopia devise a more notable expedient?

D I V I N I T Y.

The Poor Child's Friend; or, Familiar Lessons adapted to the Capacities of all Ranks of Children. 12mo. 6d. Baldwin.

We do not see that these Lessons are better calculated for the poor than for the rich: they inculcate duties equally essential to each rank, the duties of religion, morality, and benevolence. They are, however, too infantine, and resemble too much the lullabies of the nurse, which, aiming not at sense, seldom reach an articulate sound.

Family Worship explained, and recommended, in Four Sermons. By William Dalrymple, D. D. 8vo. 2s.

This work is well intended for the purpose of promoting religion and morality. It is rational, pious and perspicuous, though, in regard to composition, uncommonly deficient. It should

should seem as if Dr. Dalrymple had written it chiefly for the use of the common people; but, even upon this plan, it ought at least to have been preserved free from grammatical inaccuracies.

M E D I C A L.

Observations on the inefficacious Use of Irons, in Cases of Luxations, and Distortions of the Ankle Joint, and Children born with deformed or crooked Feet. By William Jackson. 8vo. 1s. Symonds.

Irons, when well made, we know to be often ineffectual in removing distortions of the feet; but very frequently, especially in the country, they are awkwardly and imperfectly constructed. Mr. Jackson tells us, that he knows of a better way of removing the complaint: it may be so; but his present pamphlet is a gross compound of egotism and quackery. If he was not at liberty to explain the method, but one reason, and not a very reputable one, can be assigned for his publication.

A Syllabus; or, the General Heads of a Course of Lectures on the Theory and Practice of Midwifery. By John Leake, M. D. 8vo. 1s. Murray.

This little volume contains not only the Syllabus of the lectures, which affords nothing very uncommon, but the terms on which pupils of different denominations are admitted to attend the lectures and the hospital, with the complimentary letters written to Dr. Leake, in consequence of his former works.—The little mind that can condescend to publish the compliments paid to it, proves itself wholly undeserving them.

P O E T R Y.

The Garriciad, a Poem. 4to. 1s. 6d. Symonds.

This is published as a companion to the Rosciad of Churchill; but the truth is, it can be a companion to no poem that ever was written; for it is infinitely below the most humble degree of mediocrity, in sentiment, conduct, and versification.

Verses of John Frederic Bryant, lately Tobacco-pipe Maker at Bristol; together with his Life. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Payne and Son.

Neither the poetical talents, nor the incidents in the life of this author, can ever give celebrity to his name. But we are glad to find that, by the humanity of the public, he has obtained a more solid acquisition; and we sympathise too much with his past adversity to disturb his future repose by any critical remarks.

Reflections on Radia, a Female Satirist. 4to. 1s. Wilkie.

The author of this poem ingenuously acknowledges that he has never seen 'the tuneful maids.' We sincerely believe him; and should indeed suspect that he is an utter stranger to the Muses.

Ardelia; a Poem. 4to. 1s. Baldwin.

A love-tale of the common kind, related in middling poetry. With respect to tendency, it is moral; but has nothing particular to recommend it.

N O V E L S.

The Rattle. A Novel. In a Series of Letters. 2 Vols. 12mo. 5s. Noble.

Mr. Sheridan, in the Critic, compares modern publications to a rill of text gliding through a meadow of margin. In the Rattle, the rill is a rippling current, which scarcely hides the bottom: in fact, the letters seem to be scattered on the leaves with a very sparing hand, like coloured comfits on a frosted cake. In the little narrative which we have discovered in these dreary leaves, there is some attempt at a spirited delineation of high-life, and an endeavour to contrast it: but the spirit is a momentary glare; the contrast faint and insipid. We consider this work, however, as of some importance, since it shows with how little substance two volumes of modern novels may be formed.

Edward and Sophia. A Novel. By a Lady. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. Lane.

Without much novelty of incident or character, there is a sprightliness in this narrative which engages the attention, and a pathos occasionally in the situations, which interests the heart. The novel is undoubtedly superior to the general herd; but we ought also to remark, that there is a levity, when the author speaks on sacred subjects, which we greatly disapprove. We are aware that one of his characters, from a deist becomes a Christian; but this is not enough to compensate for the tendency of some of his deistical arguments, or the indecent ridicule in one other passage.

These volumes are said to be written by a lady, and indeed there are many lady-like errors to be found in it; let 'Theocritus the weeping philosopher,' answer for all.

The Platonic Guardian, or the History of an Orphan. By a Lady. 3 vols. 1mo. 7s. 6d. Lane.

We trace our author so often in the footsteps of Miss Burney, that we must at least deny her the praise of originality. Her Monkton is, however, virtuous and disinterested; he is the Platonic Guardian, and poetical justice, together with the rules of novel-writing meet, in allotting him his due reward. If we except a few incorrections, peculiar to a lady, the story is told in a manner not unpleasing; and is, by no means, deficient in entertainment.

Blenheim Lodge, a Novel. 2 Vols. 12mo. 5s. Lane.

This is a lively entertaining novel, though we fear, if we examine it too closely, we should discover, that a little spirit in the dialogue, like rouge on an antiquated lady's face, covered some

some wrinkles and defects. We will not therefore look at it with an opera glass, and only hint, that the lady's spirit is sometimes not of the most decent kind, though, on the whole, the history is amusing. The scenes in Wales are in the affectuoso strain, and show that the author can occasionally engage the attention by the artless simplicity of unornamented nature.

M I S C E L L A N E O U S.

Principia Botanica: or, a concise and easy Introduction to the Sexual Botany of Linnæus, &c. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Robinsons.

These principles are designed for the instruction of the young botanist: they are less diffuse, and more clear than Mr. Lee's Introduction; but, as they are not illustrated with plates, we think them better adapted for the assistance of the master, than for the instruction of the student, without any other guide. The parts of fructification are described with great clearness and accuracy: but, in the enumeration of the genera, not even generic characters are added; so that we do not perceive that this work can be employed in any other way, than as a nomenclature. The young botanists, with its aid alone, cannot proceed to investigate any one plant.

To each genus are added the usual size, the number of species, and of species which grow in Britain as well as the native country of the kind in general. The genera are arranged under the subdivisions pointed out by Linnæus; but these give very little assistance. Three indexes are added, viz. 1st. of the Linnæan genera with the British names; 2d. of those trivial names, which were the genera of former botanists: 3d. of the British names referred to the Linnæan genera, sometimes to the particular species; but this should have been constantly done. These indexes are, in general, very accurate, and they are very useful.

The notes are very proper appendages: they relate to the classification, sometimes to the natural orders, and at others to the medicines derived from each genus. The author, who is probably a physician, and, in this part of his duty at least, very well informed, has added a table of those vegetable drugs, which, as they are not distinguished by the names of the plants, cannot be found in any of the indexes.

Supplement to the Letters of the late Earl of Chesterfield to his Son, Philip Stanhope, Esq. 12mo. 2s. Doddsley.

There is little doubt of these Letters being genuine. The style is free, elegant, and clear; the information pleasing and useful. They are written to his son at an early age, and, of course, cannot be contaminated by the faults complained of in the later ones. There are indeed some of a later date, which speak of the Graces and of gallantry, but in no offensive style. The following passage, relating to the duke of Ormond, the author of the Preface (Mrs. Stanhope) has pointed out. We shall select it, for the fact is curious, and probably true.

‘The

'The late duke of Ormond was almost the weakest, but, at the same time, the best bred, and most popular man in this kingdom. His education in courts and camps, joined to an easy gentle nature, had given him that habitual affability, those engaging manners, and those mechanical attentions, that almost supplied the place of every talent he wanted; and he wanted almost every one. They procured him the love of all men, without the esteem of any. He was impeached after the death of queen Anne, only because that, having been engaged in the same measures with those who were necessarily to be impeached, his impeachment, for form's sake, became necessary. But he was impeached without acrimony, and without the least intention that he should suffer, notwithstanding the party violence of those times. The question for his impeachment, in the house of commons, was carried by many fewer votes than any other question of impeachment; and earl Stanhope, then Mr. Stanhope, and secretary of State, who impeached him, very soon after negotiated and concluded his accommodation with the late king; to whom he was to have been presented the next day. But the late bishop of Rochester, Atterbury, who thought that the Jacobite cause might suffer by losing the duke of Ormond, went in all haste, and prevailed with the poor weak man to run away; assuring him, that he was only to be gulled into a disgraceful submission, and not to be pardoned in consequence of it. When his subsequent attainder passed, it excited mobs and disturbances in town. He had not a personal enemy in the world, and had a thousand friends. All this was singly owing to his natural desire of pleasing; and to the mechanical means that his education, not his parts, had given him of doing it.'

The Sympathy of Souls. By Mr. Wieland. Attempted from the French, and revised after the Original German. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Bladon.

Mr. Winzer, the translator, was unacquainted with English three years ago; so that, though we may congratulate him on his improvements, we must expect to find many errors. Foreign idioms, a stiff phraseology, and many inelegancies, are indeed conspicuous. The meaning of the French translation is, however, very faithfully preserved; but the language is still French, though the words are English: nor can we easily understand how a comparison with the German can assist a translator who has taken a free version as his model, and followed that version often servilely. The original is well known, but this translation will not render it more popular.

Outlines of Human Life, Sketched by Hercules Crammond, M. D. 8vo. 3s. in Boards. Barker.

This piece contains the memoirs of the author (Dr. Crammond) and his family. We cannot affirm it to be replete with entertainment; but it discovers no affectation, and appears to be genuine.

Essays

Essays on various Subjects, critical and moral. By William Belchier, Esq. 2 Vols. small 8vo. 5s. Jameson.

These Essays contain remarks on Butler's Analogy; a Review of Locke's Philosophy; Grammatical Strictures; and Letters on Wit and Humour. Mr. Belchier's observations are, in general, desultory, trivial, and superficial. A glimpse of philosophical light sometimes breaks out in his speculations; but it is so much obscured with mean, ungrammatical, and awkward expression, that it loses its effect; and instead of obtaining the approbation of the reader, is more likely to excite his disgust.

Some Reasons for thinking that the Greek Language was borrowed from the Chinese. 8vo. 2s. sewed. Dodsley.

To judge of the affinity of two languages, one ought to be well acquainted with each; but our knowledge of the Chinese is infinitely too imperfect to form any opinion of its relation, whether real or imaginary, with the Greek. Mr. Webb, however, has collected a variety of resemblances between these languages, the latter of which he supposes to have been derived from the former. But how far, in the accidental coincidence of speech, even a number of resemblances can be admitted as decisive of a common participation, we will not positively affirm. The Greek has likewise been supposed, and several instances adduced in support of the opinion, to be derived from the Celtic.

Select Parts of Grey's Memoria Technica; to which is added Johannes Sleidan de quatuor Imperiis, &c. 12mo. 2s. Lowndes.

Whatever facilitates to a young mind the study of a complicated system, must always prove highly useful in the earliest stages of science. The present little work is well adapted to that purpose, both by its simplicity and conciseness; and as such, we would recommend it to the notice of those who direct the education of youth.

A Footstep to the French Language. By Nicholas Salmon. 4to. 1s. 6d. Elmsley.

This little tract is the avant-courier of a more regular treatise, dictated by the experience of sixteen years. If we may judge from the specimen before us, we should fear that the author would do too much, since this collection of the more 'necessary rules' is crowded with complicated observations, minute distinctions, and unnecessary refinements. Since we could not take this first step without trouble, we fear it will be an arduous task to reach the top of the ladder.

More last Words of Dr. Johnson. 8vo. 2s. Rich.

This offence against all the rules of decency and decorum, seems to have been committed by the dullest and dirtiest of all nightmen—for which we order the scavengers to plunge the execrable author in a tub of his own filth.

The

The Juvenile Speaker: or Dialogues, and Miscellaneous Pieces in Prose and Verse. 12mo. 2s. Bent.

In a laboured and tedious Preface, and in language not always correct and perspicuous, the author points out the utility of reading in an easy and natural tone, as well as with propriety and accuracy: at the same time he regrets that there is no collection adapted for the earlier periods, when Enfield's *Speaker* is not yet admissible. The defect of a proper collection this work is intended to supply; but we must confess that we see as many difficulties in the way of the younger student, from these miscellaneous extracts, as from Dr. Enfield's larger work. Abstracted reflections are equally copious, and sensible ideas, or engaging narratives, not more so. We may also remark, that we fear this improvement in education is sometimes carried too far, and is allowed to employ the time which should be destined to better purposes, chiefly to be exhibited to the admiring parents, or their complaisant guests. As an ornamental accomplishment, it deserves attention; but it should be considered as ornamental only. Few are called on to read in public, and fewer to speak; so that, like a minuet, it is acquired with much pains to be exhibited in early youth, and to be forgotten. We now speak of mankind in general: among the higher ranks, accomplishments become essential parts of education, as the greater part of luxuries, in the same elevated spheres, seem to be almost the necessaries of life.

May-Day, or Anecdotes of Miss Lydia Lively. 12mo. 1s. Marshall.

This performance is written with equal clearness and ingenuity; the anecdotes are exemplary, and the language is generally neat and correct. The author, however, is too fond of doing things *nice*ly, of *doing* lessons, and a few similar expressions, which approach too near to colloquial inaccuracy.

Dialogues and Letters on Morality, Oeconomy, and Politeness, for the Improvement and Entertainment of young Female Minds. 3 Vols. 3s. Marshall.

This is the second edition of a very useful little work; and we are pleased to see that the author's ability and attention are so well rewarded.

Considerations on Parochial Music. By the Rev. Wm. Vincent, D.D. 8vo. 1s. Cadell.

These observations are rational and judicious. The author very properly wishes to make a parochial music general, without confining it to a select band, in the gallery or the church; and he proposes several regulations, by which it may be probably effected. It is an observation, we believe, of Rousseau, that, without a variety of parts, no vocal composition can please: however loud to the ear, it is meagre, and wants a fullness to the sense. But this refinement soon falls to the ground, in consequence

sequence of a few trials; and it appears that the author is right only, if our pleasure in hearing vocal music had but one source. Dr. Vincent proposes, that the old tunes should be sung to quicker time, and this experiment we know has been tried with success. It is indeed objected, that much of the solemnity is lost; but the attractive power is increased. Yet this argument may go too far, and be carried on to support cathedral music, which we always thought was permitted to remain, partly to give a dignity and splendor to a national religion, and partly to render the reformation more generally agreeable. The spirit of popery and of the reformed religion differ very strikingly in one respect. In the former, the worship is conducted by a few; in the latter, all partake. The music differs like the other parts of the religion; and, if our Saviour did not openly disapprove of the practice of the Jews in this respect, the examples of his followers should have taught us other lessons.

A Trip to Holland. 2 Vols. small 8vo. 5s. sewed. Becket.

An imitation of Sterne's Sentimental Journey, but much inferior to the original. While we look for sentiment and observation, we are only entertained with caricature. But we must acknowledge, in justice to the author, that he appears to be a liberal traveller, and that his remarks discover no tincture of any national prejudice.

A Treatise on the Wines of Portugal. By John Croft, S. A. S. 8vo. 1s. Baldwin.

Mr. Croft, though he writes not with the liveliness that wine usually inspires, appears to be particularly well acquainted with his subject. He gives a minute description not only of the methods of making port wine, but those of adulterating it, as practised both in Portugal and England. He likewise describes the various other kinds of wines commonly imported into this country, and delivers useful rules for distinguishing the good from the bad.

The whole Proceedings on the Trials of two Informations exhibited ex officio by the Attorney-General against Lord George Gordon: one for a Libel against the Queen of France, the other for a Libel on the Judges. Also the Trial of Thomas Wilkins for printing the last mentioned Libel. Taken in Short-hand by Joseph Gurney. 8vo. 2s. Gurney.

In both these trials the prisoners were found guilty. The former delinquent has never yet appeared, to receive the sentence of the court: but the great design of punishment, which is the prevention of crimes, may, perhaps, in his case, be equally answered by the necessity he is under of keeping quiet.

Letter from Lord George Gordon, to the Attorney-General of England. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Ridgeway.

This Letter is dated from Amsterdam, whither the writer of it had fled last summer, to escape the punishment of the law.

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He inveighs most illiberally against Mr. Arden, the attorney-general; and adds a postscript to the jurymen of England, against the object of his resentment.

The Attorney's Vade Mecum, and Client's Instructor. By John Morgan, Barrister at Law. 2 Vols. 8vo. 12s. in Boards.

Mr. Morgan's design in this work is professedly to facilitate practitioners in the law the method of prosecuting and defending of actions. The author has chiefly adopted the plan of Comyns's Digest; but with considerable variations; availing himself likewise of other tracts, and of observations resulting from his own experience. The work is written in a plain manner, divested as much as possible of Latin terms, and well calculated for general use.

Proceedings at the Assizes at Thetford, March 18, 1786. 4to. 2s. 6d. Baldwin.

This Pamphlet contains two trials, with speeches of the council, &c. The former was that of William Hurry, merchant, at Yarmouth, on an indictment preferred against him by John Watson, mayor elect of the said borough, for wilful and corrupt perjury: the latter is an action against the said John Watson, then mayor of the borough, brought by William Hurry, for a malicious prosecution of him by the above indictment. A verdict was given for Mr. Hurry, with three thousand pound damages.

Supplementary to the Trial of Hurry, against Watson. 4to. 1s. Baldwin.

This Supplement contains a report of the argument in the Common Pleas, on a motion for a new trial; in which the conduct of the jury, in the giving of their verdict, was agitated, and the doctrine respecting the power of the court to set aside verdicts for excessive damages, is argued and discussed. The final issue was, that Mr. Watson should pay Mr. Hurry the sum of fifteen hundred pounds, for damages and costs; and also make to him an apology for his conduct.

A General Plan of Provincial and Parochial Police, by Wm. Man Godschall, Esq. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Robinsons.

This little work consists of instructions to the different officers, whom the law has invested with the office of guardians of the police, in the lower departments, on whom much depends for its due regulation. They are dictated by humanity, policy, and judgment. The advice to inn-keepers and surveyors are useful appendages. The proclamations against vice and profaneness.—Lord Sydney's Letter to the High Sheriffs, and the resolutions of the county of Surry, we hope will contribute to the same beneficial purposes; and, with the assistance of Sunday schools, render the rising generation superior to the present, in their moral conduct.

A Let-

A Letter to Thomas Rogers, Esq. Chairman of the Committee for the Establishment of a new Academical Institution. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Bew.

This Letter to the Chairman of the Committee for the establishment of the new Academical Institution, contains many sneers at the divisions, and the political intrigues of the dissenters, as well as their having accepted from Sir R. Walpole the regium donum. Some of these imputations may be well-founded; but a respectable society are not to be blamed for the errors of a few individual members. We wish, however, that the dissenters would not speak so often of themselves as the only liberal and enlightened sect.

Authentic Adventures of the celebrated Countess de la Motte, translated from the French. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Johnson.

These juvenile adventures, if we suppose them to be true, reflect no great honour on the countess: they shew her to be artful, licentious, and ungrateful. The story of the necklace is nearly that which has been generally circulated, and which perhaps will never be explained any farther. If this be authentic, the transaction is unequalled in the annals of intrigue; but many suspect that the *whole* story is not yet understood. While curiosity is alive, this little volume may be interesting: it is not unentertaining, and we may apply to it the Italian proverb, *Si non è vero, è ben trovato*.

The Female Spy; or, Mrs. Tonkins's Journey through France, in the late War. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Bew.

In this pamphlet Mrs. Tonkins relates that, after fruitless applications to various persons in administration, she was at last sent out by Mr. Fox, in 1782, as a spy, to procure intelligence of the hostile preparations in the sea-ports of France, and was assured, that on her return she should be liberally rewarded by government. A sloop was accordingly fitted out for her reception, and had orders to land her wherever she pleased on the French coast. She chose to land at St. Maloes, where she assumed the name of Adams; saying she was a native of America, and wanted a passage to that country. With this pretence she travelled to Morlaix and Brest; whence she returned to London, with the intelligence that the combined fleets of France and Spain were to rendezvous the ensuing summer in the Channel, whilst a strong armament was destined to attack Gibraltar. At St. Maloes she was suspected to be a spy, and was carried before the governor; but, on producing a forged letter as from her husband in America, requesting her to come over in some vessel from any port in France, she was dismissed, and obtained a recommendation to Dr. Franklin at Paris, who gave her a passport to Ostend, whence she returned safe to England. In performing this tour she spent of her own money to the amount of a hundred and forty-two pounds. Finding Mr.

Fox out of office on her return, she applied not only to him, but to the lords Keppel, Grantham, North, Shildham, Messrs. Stephens, Sheridan, Frazer, and others; amongst whom, though she was reduced to the last shilling, and had the misfortune to break her leg in her attendance, the only relief she could obtain was seven guineas from Mr. Fox. On this account she has thought proper to submit her case to the public. What may have been her character or situation in life, previous to the transaction above related, we know not; but if she really was employed as a spy by any member of administration, she certainly ought to have been rewarded for her services. In the mean time, she seems to be in a very splenetic humour, and vents her indignation, in the most acrimonious terms, against a number of persons whom she mentions.

An Essay on Humanity. By William Nolan. 8vo. 1s. Murray.

This Essay exhibits a view of abuses in hospitals, with a plan of correcting them. Mr. Nolan reprobates the management of hospitals in every department; and proposes that, for their better regulation, a committee should be appointed to inspect them. Where the interests of humanity are so much concerned, every effort of zeal for introducing improvement is justly entitled to commendation.

A Guide to the Lottery. By W. Painter. 8vo. 2s. Kearsley.

The basis of this pamphlet is De Moivre's Doctrine of Chances; according to which, without the demonstrations of that author, Mr. Painter gives the solution of several problems relative to gaming, particularly the chances in the last lottery. He likewise explains the business of insuring tickets, with the other circumstances necessary to an adept in this species of knowledge.

C O R R E S P O N D E N C E.

WE would, with great pleasure, oblige our correspondent from Brighton; but, on a slight reflection, he will see that it is essentially necessary to confine this department of our monthly Numbers to the questions which arise on the conduct of our Work. If an opportunity occurs, in our examination of publications of the kind which he mentions, we shall certainly remember to give our opinion on the subject.

WE are much obliged to 'Anonymous' for his assistance; but he will reflect, that suspicions must necessarily arise, that so much labour is not without an object. We receive information with great satisfaction; but, if assistance is offered, we examine it with the most scrupulous attention, lest any improper partiality may be found. Besides, while our work is a picture of what passes in the literary world, we must, like skilful painters, throw some things into the back-ground, and bring forward every publication only so far as, from its importance, it appears to deserve.—The communication of 'Anonymous' will of course be attended to with particular care.



